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ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

NOT ALL ASPECTS of organization and administration are embraced by the present number of the REVIEW. Other issues will deal with Finance and Business Administration, and with the School Plant and Equipment. The June 1940 issue covered the administration of teacher personnel, and a later issue will deal with the administration of pupil personnel. The present number therefore is concerned with the more general aspects of organization and administration.

In accordance with present policy, legal aspects are interwoven with the general discussion. Also, a number of new topics have been added.

The Editorial Board is especially indebted to William C. Reavis for assuming responsibility, at the last minute, for several topics which had previously been assigned to another person.

DOUGLAS E. SCATES

Chairman of the Editorial Board

It is a well known fact that the human mind is capable of receiving and retaining a vast amount of information. This information is stored in the memory and can be recalled at a later date. The memory is a storehouse of knowledge and experience. It is the memory that enables us to learn from our past experiences and to apply that knowledge to our present and future actions. The memory is also the source of our creativity and imagination. It is the memory that allows us to dream and to envision a better future. The memory is a precious gift and it is up to us to take care of it and to use it to the best of our ability.

INTRODUCTION

IN FORMER CYCLES OF THE REVIEW the subject of this number has been designated "School Organization." The addition of "administration" to the title has permitted the bringing in of a somewhat broader range of topics than has appeared in former issues devoted to this same general subject. Among such topics are rules and regulations of schoolboards, the administration of correctional education, community educational organizations, and youth groups external to the schools. The last-mentioned topic has been covered to some extent from time to time under other headings, but the administrative and organizational aspects have not been given important consideration previously. In the case of these newly included topics the reviewers have summarized the more significant studies that appeared before April 1937.

The organization of topics in this issue differs considerably from that in previous issues on this subject.

JOHN DALE RUSSELL, *Chairman*
Committee on Organization and Administration
of Education

PLANTING

The first step in the process of planting is the selection of the site. The site should be chosen on the basis of the soil, the climate, and the availability of water. The soil should be fertile and well-drained. The climate should be suitable for the growth of the plant. The availability of water should be sufficient to meet the needs of the plant. The site should also be free from any obstacles that might hinder the growth of the plant.

The second step in the process of planting is the preparation of the soil. The soil should be turned over and broken up into small clumps. The clumps should be removed and the soil should be smoothed. The soil should then be fertilized with a suitable fertilizer.

The third step in the process of planting is the selection of the seed. The seed should be chosen on the basis of the soil, the climate, and the availability of water. The seed should also be free from any diseases or pests.

CHAPTER I

The General Organization of the Educational Service in Society¹

A. The Relationships between Public School Systems and Other Governmental Agencies

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and LEWIS H. MAHONEY

THE RELATION of the public school to other governmental agencies has long been a matter of debate. Shall the school system be a component unit in a comprehensive plan of governmental services under a centralized control, or shall school education be set up as a separate governmental service, coordinate with and independent of the agencies of civil government? Argument on this question, based largely on theory, abounds, but research has not as yet given a conclusive answer to the question of the best type of relationship between the public school system and the other governmental services. The past three years have produced some new discussions of this question and some research, though most of the research is not of the evaluative type.

In 1937 the American Council on Education published a report of its Committee on Government and Educational Organization (1). Thirteen critical problems considered by the Committee were presented with questions suggested for investigation. Two publications of the Educational Policies Commission (13, 14), defended the policy of according administrative freedom to education at all levels. Efforts to safeguard other public functions from partisan politics, notably the judiciary, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the Federal Power Commission, are cited. The Educational Policies Commission contended (13: 44) that efficiency in administration of education has resulted from the separation of school and general municipal administration. Kerwin (8) argued for unification of government functions, contending that education and schools need be assigned no special place in government organization.

Relationships at the Local Level

Bolmeier (2) summarized the legal basis for the relationships between schools and city governments in the 191 cities of the United States with 50,000 or more population. Areas in which laws set up control of such functions by municipal authority were identified as: selection of boards of education; approval or control of finance through the budget or by other means; control of school property; and other services such as legal, purchasing, and personnel. He concluded that "disputes between city and school officials do not develop so frequently from a situation based upon

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 377.

the desirability of a relationship as upon the legality," and suggested that legislation should be more carefully enacted. Dewey (5) presented a historical account of shifts in practice and theoretical organization in Chicago with respect to dependence and independence of the schools from 1835 to 1937. A survey of recreation in Chicago (17) gave the details of the activities of various public agencies in providing recreational facilities for the city. The cooperative organization to provide recreation in Cincinnati was reported in a study by Courter (4).

In an investigation of the control of municipal universities, Dilley (6) discriminated between "integration" of the institutions with general municipal government and "control" by the city government. He scored nine such institutions on twelve items which could be controlled by either the university or the government and adjudged that university to be most integrated in which the municipal government performed the largest number of functions. A rough correlation was discovered between the extent of integration and the size of the city. Kreglow (11), as quoted in the *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education, 1936-37*, showed that school districts should be organized into efficient economic and administrative units but not combined with political units. Data were presented in an article in the *Wisconsin Journal of Education* (7) comparing fiscally dependent and fiscally independent city school districts in Wisconsin. Averages for 70 of the former and 68 of the latter were given for seven financial items. The data did not support the contention that financial economy is attained by making the schools dependent upon municipal government. The patent weakness of the study lay in the comparison of financial data without any evaluation of the services provided.

Henry and Kerwin (9) sought to evaluate conflicting claims by observation and collection of evidence in numerous cities, including both those wherein schools are relatively or totally independent of regular municipal government and those wherein schools are dependent in varying degrees upon municipal government. "The observations made in the course of this inquiry do not indicate that the schools are subjected to greater political pressure in those areas in which school and municipal services are administered cooperatively than in the situations in which the school authorities administer the same functions independently. On the other hand, the comments of both school and city authorities as well as those of other citizens interviewed in the cities visited support the view that cooperative endeavor on the part of the school and municipal departments has improved the services of both organizations much more frequently than it has impaired the services of either" (9: 92-93). The evidence reported does not in itself argue either for dependence or for independence. The question returns, therefore, to the realm of theory, and proponents of both policies find satisfaction in the results of the study.

Henry and Kerwin (9: 92) said, "In conclusion it may be said that there is continuous and increasing cooperation between the cities and the schools." The conclusion is borne out by Vieg's study (18) on *The Government of*

Education in Metropolitan Chicago. He suggested that the employment of *ad hoc* devices should be examined from two standpoints: (a) the effect upon the function when the administration of it is set up under an independent authority and (b) the effect upon the other activities of government on that level when a function, especially a major one, is given this separate status. Reliance on *ad hoc* authorities has been carried to such lengths in the Chicago area that there has developed a marked fragmentalization of civic interest, revealing itself in numerous pressure groups clamoring for greater attention to special functions. Among Vieg's recommendations were: (a) Improvements in school administration should not be made at the expense of other municipal services. (b) The key to reconstruction in school finance consists of the concentration in the hands of a single representative local body of power to review on their relative merits the budgets of all public authorities in a community. Normally this would be the municipal council or the county board. Vieg concluded that if the struggle for a better educational system in the Chicago region is to be successful, it cannot be fought as something complete in itself. It must be fought as one phase of the general struggle for the rehabilitation of local government in the whole metropolitan government.

Relationships at the State Level

At the state level Cocking and Gilmore (3) indicated that the increasing power of the executive branch of state governments has influenced the relation of education and schools to government. They pointed to four services of the state government that exercise control in varying degrees over education: fiscal and budget agencies, central purchasing authority, central personnel systems, and state planning boards. Educational autonomy has been largely checked at the state level by the growing feeling that, as the chief executive of the state, the governor should have general responsibility for developing a complete program of state services and for recommending the plan for financing such a program. That the trend indicated by Cocking and Gilmore is particularly evident in relation to higher educational institutions is attested by the study of McNeely (12), which is summarized in Chapter IV of this REVIEW. Cocking and Gilmore (3) showed also that through the power to appoint all or a majority of the members of the state boards of education, the governors of twenty-six states are in a position to exert considerable influence over state educational policies.

Examples of controls exercised by noneducational agencies of state government over local planning of school buildings were analyzed for all forty-eight states in the *American School and University* (15). Boards of health, departments of public welfare, state architects, fire marshals, departments of public safety, and others exercise control over school buildings in the various states. Houle (10) revealed for eight states the extent to which adult education at the state level is performed by numerous agencies, many of them not primarily agencies for education.

Relationships at the Federal Level

A chart published in *School Life* (16) showed the position of the Office of Education in the Federal Security Agency and of that agency in the pattern of the executive branch of the federal government.

B. Territorial Units for Attendance and Local School Administration

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and LEWIS H. MAHONEY

The reorganization of school units with respect to attendance and administration continues to be one of the pressing problems of educational administration in the United States. At least, this was the conclusion of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association (38). The Commission pointed out that adequate educational opportunities and economy in the use of plant and equipment depend on the organization of relatively large attendance units and that larger administrative units are necessary if competent professional leadership is to be provided.

Keesecker (34) reported that the tendency of legislation to increase the centralization of administrative control over public education by state authorities continued to manifest itself during 1935 and 1936 in a number of states, especially in Ohio, Rhode Island, and Vermont. Noteworthy legislation designed to effect the organization and consolidation of local units was enacted in California, Ohio, and Vermont. Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Oregon, New Mexico, and Texas enacted legislation to facilitate district consolidation or to restrict the continuance of especially small districts.

The need for larger units is primarily a problem of rural areas. Cook (25) reviewed the conditions and the developments in education in rural areas, pointing out that these areas provide a large percent of the school organizations in the United States and yet educate only a small fraction of the nation's children. The report stated that between 1926 and 1934 a reduction in one-room schools of nearly 23,000 or about 14 percent took place, although there had been relatively little change in the organization of local units since 1928. Three developments appeared to offer considerable promise for the future: (a) a clarification of the objectives to be realized in the establishment of local units; (b) a growing disbelief in any single best type for all local administrative units; (c) an accumulation of facts in support of the larger unit for school organization, administration, and support.

A more recent publication of the United States Office of Education by Gaumnitz (26) presented an eighteen-year summary of the movement to eliminate the one-teacher schools. The study revealed a suspension of activity in the consolidation of schools during the worst years of the depression, but a revival in 1935 and 1936. The number of one-teacher schools fell from 196,037 in 1918 to 131,101 in 1936, a reduction of

approximately one-third. In 1934-35, 10.9 percent of the school children of the United States attended one-teacher schools and 5.1 percent attended two-teacher schools. In 1918, 31 percent of all teachers were employed in one-teacher schools; in 1936, only 15.2 percent. In 1918, 78.8 percent of all schools were one-teacher schools; by 1936 this percent had fallen to 55.3.

Cook (25) included among other promising signs of improvement the availability of many specific studies of local situations. Outstanding among such studies are those of the Local School Units Project sponsored by the United States Office of Education. Alves, Anderson, and Fowlkes (19) summarized the project studies made in ten states. They listed the purposes of the studies as follows: (a) to collect and organize data on educational conditions resulting from or directly concerned with the efficient and economical functioning of local school units; (b) to evaluate the data collected in terms of desirable criteria or minimum educational standards; (c) to propose on the basis of material collected and evaluated, more satisfactory local school units when necessary; (d) to project a program for effecting the improvements proposed; (e) to disseminate information concerning the findings and proposals of the study. Eleven chapters are devoted to brief summaries of the studies made in the several states. These studies are more fully reported by the respective state departments of education (21, 22, 24, 30, 31, 35, 39, 40, 41, 43, 44).

The summary chapter brought together data for the ten states for reference and comparison. In Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, and Oklahoma 65 percent or more of all school districts reported enrolments of 100 or fewer. On the other hand, in Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee 65 percent or more of the districts have enrolments of 500 or more pupils. Another measure of the smallness of the schools was the number of teachers per district. In Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, and Oklahoma approximately 75 percent or more of the districts employed from one to five teachers. The number of one-room school buildings in the United States was 133,223 in 1936. A section of the study evaluated existing provisions in the states for the reorganization of local school units. Boundary adjustments are difficult to make. In certain states the legal requirements for reorganization tend to restrict the process, which in many cases is decidedly complex. In general, provisions are lacking for planning and coordinating the reorganization of school units.

Communities desiring to undertake the reorganization of school units will find the revised edition of the handbook of *Principles and Procedures for Planning the Reorganization of Local School Units* by Alves and Morphet (20) exceedingly valuable. The handbook suggests principles, criteria, and procedures for conducting studies of local units and presents forms for collecting and tabulating data. Illustrations for various phases of such investigations have been drawn from the *Local School Units Project*. The pattern of investigation has been employed in studies made under WPA grants in the states of Colorado, Idaho, Texas, Utah, Wisconsin,

and Washington. Studies in New York and Alabama have also followed the suggestions set forth in the publication.

Hall (28) in a study of the educational situation in Illinois, set up criteria and principles for administrative units and made suggestions for the accomplishment of reorganization. With the data of the WPA project, he applied the principles and criteria to one county to demonstrate the possibility of their use. Zimmerman (47) worked out a possible reorganization of the school districts of La Salle County, Illinois. Weber (46), drawing upon Zimmerman's study and other investigations in Illinois, presented suggested reorganizations for Coles, La Salle, and Pope Counties.

The Report of the Committee on the Larger District Unit of the Illinois Education Association (33) pointed out the decreasing size of the one-room schools of Illinois. In 1907 the average enrolment was 29, whereas in 1937 the average was only 15. Nineteen percent of the one-room schools enrolled fewer than 15 pupils in 1912; 55 percent enrolled fewer than 15 in 1937. The committee favored an advisory county board of education charged with the duty of mapping the county and of suggesting feasible reorganization plans, but did not advocate making the consolidation of districts compulsory. The Illinois Tax Commission in cooperation with the Works Progress Administration published an *Atlas of Taxing Units* (32) for the state. A somewhat similar publication for New York school districts was prepared by the district superintendents of the state and published by the Regents' Inquiry (42).

Bateman (23), who studied the county-unit school district in Utah, made the following generalizations regarding consolidation: (a) to secure consolidation of districts by votes of electors, either in each district or in the whole area proposed for consolidation, gains little support from experience in Utah; (b) if consolidation is secured by action of the elected representatives of the people the reorganization will have the support of the people; (c) the larger district organization should be tried out in an area where there is strong leadership, and near a growing city; (d) there are periods favorable to consolidation.

Moffitt (37) declared that trends toward public school centralization in Utah both within the county and the state have greatly enhanced the educational program. He pointed out that the history of the state, the homogeneity of the people, and the forms of church government have been conducive to centralization, using counties largely as basic units.

Holy (29) reported the results of the project findings in Ohio in connection with the School Foundation Program for Ohio. During the first year of the Foundation Program 280 one-room schools were closed, 33 school districts were eliminated, and a number of small high schools were closed. Problems of territorial units have been studied also in New York (27) and Texas (45).

The problem of larger school attendance units is closely linked with problems of transportation of pupils. Lambert (36), in a study of school transportation, concluded that possibilities of satisfactory transportation

systems have an important influence on the organization of attendance areas. He showed that in the process of bringing school and pupils together the more recent inclination is to transport the children to school rather than to bring the school to the children. Transportation must therefore be regarded as a problem in educational organization.

C. Private and Church Controlled Education

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and WALTER A. EGGERT

Data from the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* (54) indicate that in 1934 there were 7,745 private elementary schools in the United States. The total enrolment in such schools was 1,762,428 pupils, distributed as follows: Roman Catholic, 1,630,120; Lutheran, 67,124; nonsectarian, 42,824; Episcopal, 4,730; Friends, 3,565; Seventh-Day Adventist, 3,166; Presbyterian, 2,837; the remainder were divided among the numerous other protestant denominations. From these data it is apparent that over 90 percent of the enrolment in all private elementary schools is in the Catholic schools and approximately 4 percent is in the Lutheran. The nonsectarian private schools enrol slightly less than 3 percent of the elementary children educated in nonstate schools.

The *Biennial Survey of Education* (54) also revealed that there were approximately 2,635 private secondary schools in the United States with an enrolment of about 276,000 students. The distribution of enrolments is as follows: Roman Catholic, 197,712; nonsectarian, 50,564; Episcopal, 6,903; Presbyterian, 4,543; and Lutheran, 2,081. Approximately 72 percent of this enrolment is in Catholic schools and a little over 1 percent is in the Lutheran. The number of secondary-school students in private nonsectarian schools is about 18 percent of the total secondary-school enrolment in private schools.

Cronin and Donohue (52) made a study of schools that are of a combined parochial and public nature. Their study revealed that in 1937 there were 340 elementary and secondary schools in the United States which could be classified as Catholic public schools. The majority of these were of the elementary-school type and the total enrolment was approximately 18,476 pupils. The range in enrolment per school was from 10 to 791. One of these schools had been in existence since the year 1834. Of the 632 teachers employed in the schools studied by Cronin and Donohue, 102 were "lay" persons and 530 were members of religious orders.

The Administration of Church Schools

Recent publications and studies indicate that church education is attempting to clarify its status in the existing social order. Among the noteworthy recent studies are some that present new facts regarding the history, purpose, and status of privately controlled education. One of the most recent of such studies was published by the Northern Illinois District

of the Evangelical Lutheran Synod (53). The Lutheran Day School is under the control of local congregations. It is not governed or conducted by the church at large or by a synodical district. The pastor of the local congregation is the superintendent by virtue of his local office. The local schoolboard, made up of members of the congregation, acts by authority of the congregation and in accordance with rules laid down in the constitution and bylaws of the local church. The faculty of the Lutheran Day School is composed of the pastor of the church as superintendent, the principal—regularly called teacher, women teachers, and in the case of a vacancy, the substitute teacher. All must be deserving members of the Lutheran Church. The local schoolboard usually consists of from three to seven members and is authorized to exercise supervision. The pastor is in all cases a member of the schoolboard and as a rule, is chairman of the board. Inasmuch as the public schools avoid the responsibilities of religious instruction, the Lutheran schools claim to exist primarily for the purpose of assisting the Christian home and church to habituate children to "living a life pleasing unto God." According to their statement the conception of education is comprehensive enough to include along with religious devotion the development of individual talents and the civic virtues as well. The school is established on the grounds of scriptural authority, commanding parents to teach their children to observe all things commanded by the Lord.

Campbell (49), in a volume entitled *Parish School Administration*, attempted to set forth the outstanding problems of the parish school and discussed the relationships among the pastor, principal, teachers, and parents. Further problems discussed by him involve the parish school curriculum, records, reports, and the usual administrative factors pertinent to school organization.

Public Support for Private and Church Schools

A perennial problem of education in the United States has been the question of the use of public funds for the support of nonpublic schools. A recent study by Kindred (56) presented information showing the legal situation in the various states with respect to the use of public funds for such schools. This study showed that all but three states, Maine, Vermont, and Maryland, prohibit the appropriation of public money to aid private and parochial schools. The study further revealed that seventeen states do not permit the use of public funds for any purpose other than the support of common schools. Twenty-two states prohibit the use of public funds for any secular purpose, society, or institution. Eleven states prohibit the use of public money in the aid of educational institutions controlled by a sectarian group. Fourteen states do not permit the granting of financial assistance to sectarian schools. Four states have clauses prohibiting the use of public money in aid of private, nonsectarian schools. Six states have clauses which deny public funds to any school in which a sectarian doctrine is

taught. Eight states have clauses directed against any grant or appropriation of money, property, or credit of the state to educational institutions not under the exclusive control of the state.

Scanlan (61) in a study of state and nonstate schools, considered the methods of support of the nonstate schools. He held that private schools must be permitted to continue to function in the United States in view of the fact that there has been no evidence for their discontinuance. He based his contention largely on the constitutional guarantee of religious freedom and the principles of democracy. He also contended that the existence of these schools involved no violation of the historical doctrine of the separation of church and state, even if the schools were to receive more generous treatment from the state. He believed that the right of parents to educate their children in a school that is satisfactory to them is fundamental. Likewise, he believed that whenever necessary the state was justified in supplementing the resources of the private schools.

Coler (50), a prominent Methodist layman, proposed that the state should pay for the education of its young on a unit basis. His proposal would provide parents, teacher, school, or institution giving the education to the child a proportionate share of the state expenditures for education. This would require a distribution of the public money on a basis similar to that now in effect in Quebec, Canada. This plan involved distributing public aid to nonpublic schools and implied that equivalent service and materials would as a general rule be procured at equivalent cost. McGuire (57) was in the group which believed it would be satisfactory to subsidize private education that benefits the state as a whole. He maintained that the equalizing principle is justified primarily on the social theory that the educational offerings will enhance the public welfare. This same point of view is held by Myers and Williams (58) who stated that the fundamental issue is that since the state as a whole reaps the benefits from a good educational program, or suffers from a poor one, it should assume the responsibility for equalizing the burden.

Exemption of Schools from Taxation

The exemption of private and church schools from taxation is a subject of much controversy. Practically every state to some extent exempts nonpublic school property from taxation. In Cronin's study (51) of constitutional provisions relating to tax exemptions fourteen state constitutions were found expressly to exempt the property of nonpublic schools from taxation under certain conditions and to a certain extent. In nineteen states the constitutions contain provisions expressly permitting legislatures to grant exemptions which they consider desirable. Another study pertaining to exemptions from taxation was made by the Research Division of the National Education Association (60). This study reported constitutional or statutory exemptions for private education in twenty-seven states. In some instances the matter of the institution's being conducted on a non-

profit basis is a determining factor as to whether or not it shall be tax exempt. The study indicated that in thirteen states the legislature has power to exempt private and sectarian schools from taxation.

Aid to Pupils

The Educational Policies Commission (59) in 1938 issued a statement of considerable interest to private education. This report stated in part that "the enforcement of compulsory education is a function of the state. When children are enrolled in private or parochial schools, the state is just as certainly interested in their regular attendance as it is in the attendance of the children attending public schools. . . . Health services, including health examinations and the control of contagious diseases, are measures taken for the protection of all children in the community. These services may well be made available for all boys and girls regardless of the schools which they attend. The protection of the health of children may not be construed as a subsidy to the school in which they are enrolled" (59: 126-27). The Advisory Committee on Education (48:198) recommended: "Such portions of the general aid as may be allocated in the joint plans to the purchase of reading materials, transportation, and scholarships should be made available as far as federal legislation is concerned for the benefit of pupils both in public and in nonpublic schools." This recommendation of the Committee has been the subject of considerable debate.

In a discussion of the distribution of funds for the National Youth Administration, Johnson and Harvey (55) pointed out that student aid is extended not to institutions but to individuals; it is federal aid to the needy. It is apparent from this statement that the distribution of National Youth Administration funds has been based on individual needs of the student rather than on the type of institution which the student attends. In a recent investigation in regard to the proposed Federal Aid to Education Act of 1939 (62) the Congressional hearings revealed that there were no undesirable controls in operation in connection with the administration of National Youth Administration aid through private schools.

State Control over Nonpublic Schools

Scanlan (61) indicated what he believed might be desirable controls for the state to exercise over private and church education. Such matters as compulsory attendance, length of the session and school term, and size of classes could well come under state control. The state might well exercise control over the language of instruction that is used in private schools. The licensing of private schools will assist the state in keeping informed as to the number of such institutions which are in existence. Likewise, regular inspection of these schools will be considered beneficial to their successful administration. The teaching personnel of private schools must meet acceptable standards in terms of education and training.

CHAPTER II

The Organization of Education at Various Levels¹

A. The Organization of the Nursery School

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and LEWIS H. MAHONEY

THE United States Office of Education in "A Survey of a Decennium of Education in Countries Other than the United States" (63: 19) stated: "If education extended upward and outward to include millions of adults, it likewise moved downward with respect to age groupings to care for large numbers of children under the primary school admission time. A better realization of how important the first half dozen years are in the development of a human being made it clear that a nation's responsibility for its children cannot logically be postponed arbitrarily until the sixth or the seventh year of their lives."

The *Biennial Survey of the United States Office of Education* (69) reported that during the economic depression, school opportunities for children below first grade decreased in the tax-supported schools and increased through the projects of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. On the one hand, kindergartens in public schools for children four and five years old were entirely eliminated in some cities, and in others the work was greatly curtailed. On the other hand, children from two to five years of age of needy and unemployed parents were enrolled for the first time in emergency nursery schools.

The activity of the federal government in maintaining nursery schools is clearly the outstanding fact of nursery education in recent years. Campbell and others (65) in a staff study of the Advisory Committee on Education reported data on the nursery schools operated by the Works Progress Administration. "It has been estimated that in 1932 there were approximately 300 nursery schools in the country, almost all of them privately controlled. Today there are probably about 1,900 nursery schools, of which almost 1,500 are included under the emergency program. The Works Progress Administration nursery school program exists in every state. . . . The program employs over 5,400 persons, of whom more than 3,200 are teachers. During November 1937 it conducted nearly 1,500 full-day units and enrolled about 40,000 children. . . . It is estimated that about two-thirds of the nursery schools are located in public school buildings. . . ." (65: 108, 109). Data for 1933-34 showed the median number of staff members per school unit as 4.4, and of children per staff member as 9.2. About 54 percent of schools were in cities, 34 percent in small towns, and 12 percent in villages and rural areas. Most of the schools were open all year, and from about 8:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. for five days a week.

Emerson and Peck (70) have reported on the "Status of the Nursery School Movement in Texas" in the *Texas Outlook*. They reported that in

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 380.

1937 fewer than 1,000 children were enrolled in nursery schools out of about 375,000 of nursery school age. In the schools there was an average of less than 10 pupils per teacher. The study showed most schools have a physician, nurse, nutritionist, and psychologist. Another study in Texas (67) gave more detailed information. Thirty-seven nursery schools had an average daily attendance of 1,184 and an enrolment (estimated) of 1,850. These schools employed 223 adults and about 150 NYA youths. A report from Missouri by Moon (75) showed 27 WPA schools in operation in the state enrolling some 800 children. Thirty-five nursery schools were reported in the cities of Kansas by Turney (78) and six federal schools for Chinese in San Francisco were reported by Warren (79). Two pre-kindergartens were opened by the city schools of Baltimore in September 1938. Goodman (72) reported that these schools opened with enrolments of 30 three- and four-year-olds in each group. Four brief reports emphasized the values of cooperation of various groups in the founding and management of nursery schools (64, 66, 73, 77).

A questionnaire study of the organization of preschool education was undertaken in 1939 by the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, Switzerland. Replies were received from 28 countries and the report published by the Bureau (74).

A series of descriptive accounts of practices in various countries was published in the *New Era* in 1937 (76). Both description and statistical information regarding English nursery schools were presented by Cusden (68). Fifty-nine recognized nursery schools were reported for 1933 and 87 for 1937. Cusden noted a trend toward all-year terms with short or no recesses. Less than one-tenth of the children between the ages of two and five were accommodated in grant-aided schools. Chapters with data regarding legal status and practices were devoted to powers of local authorities, buildings, furnishings and equipment, staffing, and finance.

The most recent comprehensive treatment of nursery schools is the volume of Foster and Mattson (71) published in 1939. These authors referred to the limited opportunities of children in the United States for nursery education. They held that the nursery school is one of today's answers to the search for a good environment for very young children. Schorling stated in the editor's introduction to the volume that nursery schools were moving rapidly from a period of custodial care to a program of instruction.

B. The Organization of the Kindergarten-Primary Unit

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and C. TAYLOR WHITTIER

The most recent data available with respect to public school kindergartens are provided by the Association for Childhood Education (80) for 12 selected states, California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.

From a questionnaire submitted to the superintendents of schools in the 1,443 towns and cities of 2,500 population and over, it was learned that 522 of the 1,004 responding to the inquiry, or 52 percent, had kindergartens in 1939-40. The study disclosed that the number of kindergartens in 1939-40 had decreased 1 percent over the previous year in the cities with population over 50,000 and had increased 2 percent in towns and cities with population under 50,000. If the findings reported are typical for the other 36 states, the loss in kindergartens during the early years of the depression appears to have been retrieved.

Holmes (84) described the ways in which construction of the kindergarten room has been designed and organized to meet the needs of the child, considering the effect of color and design, acoustical treatment of ceilings, health features, and social, cultural, and esthetic needs.

While the kindergarten is still a separate grade in many school systems, numerous attempts have been made in recent years to bring about reorganization of the kindergarten and primary grades. In a series of experiments summarized by Lane (87) modifications were made in the four-year span of kindergarten and Grades I to III. The pupils were moved from one group to another whenever it appeared that they could profit by the change, promotion as such not being used. Wulff (89) reported that in San Jose, California, all children who entered school for the first time were placed for six or eight weeks in the junior-primary division, where they engaged in an activity program. After testing, those who were ready to read were placed in low first; the others continued in the junior-primary division until they were ready to read.

Two studies (81, 88) showed the application of the social maturity basis for primary grade reorganization. Under this plan the grade classification was dropped and the pupils were grouped together according to their stage of development in the possession and practice of good social habits and their abilities to work and play together happily and effectively. In the school organization reported, the school was treated as a unit from kindergarten through Grade VI. The total enrolment of the school was divided by chronological age into as many classes as there were teachers. During the first month misfits were adjusted until all pupils had a congenial social environment. Another study (86) reported a modified form of ability grouping in the primary grades. The pupils were brought together for the first period in the morning but the remainder of the day was divided into four major subjectmatter periods. There were nine possible groups, so the pupil was able to be in a group near his ability and achievement level in each subject. It was reported that more than average academic achievement growth was made by these pupils. Another type of ability grouping was reported by Gerstmyer (83) which made possible continuous, natural growth for every child. The first-grade pupils were grouped by ability and then subjected to different promotion standards and a different curriculum. The slow groups took eight semesters, the aver-

age six semesters, and the superior five semesters to complete the work. A different scheme has been reported by DeLong (82); pupils in the first two grades were transferred from group to group depending upon reading levels, and remained in the primary period until passed to the third grade.

A study by Kvaraceus (85) proved interesting in the light of the use made of tests in grouping pupils. A test given to one group a few weeks after school opened and to another group about six months after school opened, produced better results in the latter case. The tentative conclusion was drawn that the time factor needs to be controlled in using tests for grouping pupils.

C. The Organization of the Elementary School

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and C. TAYLOR WHITTIER

The pattern of elementary organization is not set nor is it likely to be for some time to come. A number of reports (98, 100, 103, 112, 113) have dealt with many aspects of organization and administration of the elementary schools. In Brueckner's study (92) the findings on elementary education in an entire state were presented, including many aspects of the organization of elementary education.

Class Grouping

Much has been written about the merits of large or small size classes. Wilson and Gillett (115), drawing on recent findings in this field, presented the conclusion that small classes are to be preferred over large classes in the elementary school. Another problem in grouping, namely, that of rooms with one or two grades, has been experimentally evaluated by Knight (105). On the basis of pupil achievement little difference was found in favor of either organization.

In an attempt to break away from the conventional grades in a school an experiment with class selection on the basis of "social groupings" was tried by Murphy (110). Pupils who were of about the same mental maturity were grouped on the basis of ability to work happily together. If a pupil, for example, needed a reading level other than the one of his social-level group he went to the proper class group for this work.

Length of the School Day

A study by Knox (106), which investigated present practice as to the length of the school day for each grade from kindergarten through sixth grade, included eighty systems. The average day in kindergarten was two and one-fourth hours long; in Grade I, four and three-fourths hours; in Grade II, five hours; and in Grades III to VI, five and one-half hours. There was considerable variation in the time when school opened in the morning and when it closed at the end of the day.

Practices in Pupil Promotion and Progress

Philadelphia, according to Aretz (91), has developed a plan of continuous pupil progress where grade becomes synonymous with school age. A child does not need to repeat all subjects just because he is slow in a single subject. The grouping plan takes into account the child who excels in one activity and not in another.

Two studies are reported by Cook (94) to show the effect of nonpromotion of pupils of low achievement. A study of eighteen school systems in Minnesota in towns with a population of less than 4,000 showed that in schools of high promotion standards the large percent of over-age pupils tended to reduce the mean intelligence of the classes and to lower the achievement standards of the grade when compared with schools having more lenient promotion standards. The study also showed that the teacher did not have to cope with a significantly smaller range of pupil abilities in those schools in which a larger percent of pupils were retained than in the schools where few pupils were retained. In 1938-39 in St. Paul, Minnesota, tests were administered to pupils reported as likely to fail the first semester. Two groups of these failing pupils were equated; one group was given a conditional pass, the other repeated the work. After a semester thirty-two comparisons were made between the group which was passed and the group which failed. The result was a tie. The tentative conclusion was that passing or failing a pupil does not solve the educational problem. It is necessary to see that the pupils' needs are met and that the teacher is able to cope adequately with the range of pupil abilities in her room.

Newer Content Organizations

A large scale experiment conducted in the schools of New York City was reported by Loftus (107). There were sixty-nine experimental schools conducting an activity program, with 75,000 pupils and 2,250 teachers taking part at the end of four years. At the date of the report the differences between the experimental and the control schools were slight.

A plan, reported by Elliott (97), has been used for two years in the Nash, Texas, schools whereby the pupils devote the mornings to drills in the fundamental tool subjects and the afternoons to doing things of their choice as long as the activity is wholesome and can be done with due respect for the rights of others. The pupils were reported to be engaging in worthwhile learning of their own volition. In Salt Lake City, Utah, according to Worlton (116), the pupil has the advantages of integration of his experiences and yet receives a well-trained teacher for each of his main subjects. Thus the specialization characteristic of the platoon or departmental organizations is tempered so that the regimentation of pupils is not necessary.

According to Holmes (104), Mount Vernon, New York, conducted a platoon plan of organization so that without additional expense the pupils could have the advantages of a real activity program. The teacher specialists

were reported to be better able than general teachers to carry out the many types of activities.

An experiment to determine the value of drill and systematic teaching in reading, writing, and arithmetic in the first year and a half, as against a general preparation for a group of control pupils, has been reported by Morphett and Washburne (109). The matching technic was used and the groups measured at various times. At the end of the seventh grade the children in the experimental group, who had had no drills, tests, or systematic teaching in reading, writing, and arithmetic during the first year and a half in school, were on the average ahead of the control group in academic subjects and certain other factors studied.

Provisions for Gifted and Slow Pupils

Three studies (99, 108, 111) provided a general overview with respect to research and methods used in public schools to deal with gifted children. In Baltimore gifted children in the elementary schools were given an enriched program (95). Their schedule provided for approximately one period daily, four days a week, for such activities. The time was taken from several subjects. It was reported that the superior pupils were thereby able to enrich not only their program but also that of the whole school. Greenberg (101) reported an experiment in classes for gifted children carried on in New York City.

A report of a survey by Hildreth (102) showing the educational provisions for slow-learning pupils in the United States provided a general view of the present status of this work. Dimmick (96) described a school system with a modified platoon-school organization, using a remedial group plan and certain features of the activity program, which attempted to meet needs of the maladjusted learner more effectively than the regular platoon-school organization. A method of adapting educational facilities to the rural youth of Ontario, Canada, reported by Amoss (90), provided for the individual pupil wherever he was found. This plan included provisions for backward, orthopedic, sight-defective, speech-defective, and home-bound pupils.

Appraisal of Newer Trends

In reporting his findings obtained by the use of various instruments for appraisal of experimental and conventional elementary schools, Wrightstone (117) considered practices concerned with adjustment, creative expression, critical thinking, and mental hygiene. Watts (114) reported a survey of the opinions of four hundred persons on what the elementary schools should do about many problems. A study by Caldwell (93), which included practices in all but four states, showed the newer practices used in the public schools and long advocated by professors of education. It was reported among other items that most of the schools in the study used a flexible daily program.

D. The Organization of the Secondary School

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and ASAHEL D. WOODRUFF

Modernization of School Programs

Evidence continues to accumulate steadily on the widespread effort of secondary-school people to make their programs more functional and more efficient than heretofore. There is an apparent paradox in the movement, which seems to be due to lack of contact of many school leaders with any of the numerous summer workshops and other offerings of universities and centers of progressive study. This paradox is shown by the fact that although efforts to modernize programs are nationwide, Spaulding (152) reported that most of the principals he made contact with in a study of administrative problems were apprehensive of so-called "progressive education" methods.

Reavis (145) summarized evidence on progressive changes in the secondary-school field. Among other sources he canvassed the contents of twenty-five issues of the *School Review* (135) prior to March 1939, in which he found 180 innovating changes voluntarily reported. Of these changes, approximately one-third were on curriculum problems, and one-fifth on extracurriculum problems. A similar canvass, by this writer, of the issues of the *School Review* since March 1939 revealed under the title "Here and There Among the High Schools" another sixty-three such reports, of which over one-third were on curriculum problems, with pupil adjustment and school activities comprising about one-third and one-fourth of the total respectively. Manley (139) reported the high lights of experimental work in five Tulsa, Oklahoma, secondary schools, where the major effort has been to promote a more effective grouping of subjects than the traditional method provides. A five-year study patterned after the Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association was reported from California by Hand (133). He indicated that the chief effort has been directed toward the solving of problems of noncollege-bound students. He listed eight areas of experimental study grouped around the social and adjustive needs of the students. After a 28,000 mile trip of observation, Johnston (137) summarized his impressions of secondary-school problems and the attempts that had been made to solve them. He reported that the school library was the heaviest sufferer from the financial stringency, that rooms were quite generally overcrowded, and that teachers were generally overloaded. The new moves he reported most in evidence were the breakdown of subjectmatter lines through integration of subjects, adoption of some form of core curriculum with apparent widespread success, and a variety of promising efforts at experimental study of other problems. Some changes noted by Douglass (127) in California schools included discontinuance of study halls and lengthening of class periods to sixty minutes, closer correlation of social studies with the ideals and principles of a democratic society, and efforts to modernize teaching methods. Rosenlof (148) reported a similar lengthening of class periods in schools of the North Central

Association, and an increase of 30 percent in the number of approved schools in the territory covered by the association. Schools interested in developing studies of their own would do well to become acquainted with the report of Douglass (128) to the American Youth Commission, which is intended to serve as a suggestive guide to similar studies. The U. S. Office of Education (118) also published a bulletin replete with detailed suggestions, comprehensive plans, and useful forms for such studies.

Reorganization of Secondary Units

Reports from various sections of the country have revealed a continued shift away from the traditional four-year school toward the 6-4-4 plan or the five- or six-year secondary school. Rainey (143) interpreted the evidence, in a study for the American Youth Commission, as favoring the adoption of the 6-4-4 plan. Three other school districts reported adoption of the 6-4-4 plan as follows: Bartlesville, Oklahoma (151); Pratt, Kansas (149); and Pomona, California (153). Foster (131) stated that the junior-senior undivided five- or six-year school is now the most rapidly growing unit, there being 6,203 such schools which enrol about 23 percent of all secondary-school pupils. He admitted that separate junior and senior high schools still dominate the field, with enrolments of 30.7 percent of all pupils in 3,331 schools. He ascribed this large enrolment to the fact that these schools are in the larger cities. Foster reported the percent of public high schools which were reorganized or in traditional form for the years 1922-1938 as follows:

Year	Reorganized	Regular
1922	11.1	88.9
1926	19.4	80.6
1930	26.0	74.0
1934	28.6	71.4
1938	37.4	62.6

Anderson (119) reported a similar trend for Ohio and Rosenlof (147) reported that for the North Central Association, the percent of various unit organizations were: four-year schools, 67.9; three-year schools, 15.9; five-year schools, 1.4; six-year schools, 14.8. Detailed statistics for California schools are available for the period ending October, 1938, in a report by Chase (122). As a deterrent to headlong abandonment of the four-year school, Diefendorf (126) pointed out two ways in which that unit will prove valuable; (a) in handling the expected shrinkage in secondary enrolments where such shrinkage would make reorganization unwise, and (b) in making possible a junior college program in some communities where it could not otherwise develop.

Secondary School Standards

The report of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards (123) revealed a tendency toward the use of a broad, thorough examination of schools, with a view to interpreting the school's standing in the

light of its own philosophy and objectives. Evaluation is becoming increasingly based on study of the school as a whole rather than on any one or any limited number of aspects of the program. Jessen (136), the secretary of the study, wrote that efforts of a school to engage in self-evaluation are more profitable as a stimulant to progress than as an accurate evaluation, which statement, if true, would constitute good ground for a much broader and more "organismic" type of evaluation, as indicated in the general report of the study. Schools that desire to take advantage of the technic developed by the study will find it helpful to read Eells' discussion (129), in which instructions are given on how to proceed and what materials are needed in such an evaluation. Two other helpful publications are the *Supplementary Reprints* (124) and the 1940 edition of *Educational Temperatures* (125).

A recent revision of the Ohio High School Standards (144) directed efforts at improvement primarily in two special directions; (a) toward "reflective thinking in all the activities of life" by each individual, and (b) toward "cooperation in the relations of people" by the social group. The aims of the schools are listed as follows:

A. In regard to individuals the school endeavors:

- (a) To help them discover and develop their individual interests
- (b) To help them identify and think about their basic disturbances and conflicts
- (c) To help them improve their technics of research, thinking, and experimentation
- (d) To help them master those facts and develop those skills and understandings which are needed for effective living.

B. In regard to social or cooperative relations of people the school endeavors:

- (a) To help them understand the cooperative way of solving common problems in the light of the American tradition
- (b) To help them improve their technics of cooperative inquiry, discussion, and experimentation
- (c) To help them recognize and develop a genuinely democratic leadership
- (d) To help them develop an understanding of, a respect for, and faith in good leadership, and a critically intelligent following of that leadership (144: 11-13).

The Small School

Individual studies published since the National Survey of Secondary Education serve in the main merely to add to the evidence compiled in that survey. Breternitz (121) recently studied eighty-seven high schools in Nebraska classified as to size and type. They ranged in enrolments from 76 to 1,000 students. The only real differences were found to exist between schools grouped as to size, in which case the large schools were uniformly superior. There were few or no differences between the three-year high schools, selected four-year high schools, and six-year high schools, when the factor of size was controlled. Breternitz corroborated the report of Johnston (137) that the school library is the most neglected unit in the small school. Results of a similar nature were reported by Riddle (146) in a doctor's dissertation dealing with ten large and ten small

schools in Alabama rural districts. The large schools were said to be superior in staff, buildings, equipment, curriculum cost per pupil, and percent of graduates entering college. The large and small schools were approximately alike in student personnel, progress through school, and achievement of pupils. Hawley and Mather (134) made a questionnaire study of 135 small high schools in California, where 200 of the 397 high schools of the state have fewer than 350 pupils. His findings revealed a gradual increase in desirable features as the enrolments increased in size.

Administrative Problems of Principals

Two reports have been made by the study of the Implementation Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. A questionnaire was addressed to principals in forty-six states and the District of Columbia in which they were asked to list their most pressing problems. Approximately one-third of the problems reported dealt with the need for improvement in the program of studies, the most frequently mentioned problem being remedial reading. About one-ninth of the problems dealt with the development of more effective teaching methods, and with retention and guidance of pupils, respectively. The least concern was shown with local financial problems, school district organization, relationships with the state department, caring for out-of-school groups not adequately served by other agencies, and stating the aims of the secondary school. Spaulding (152) drew the following conclusions from the study: (a) high-school principals are not yet sufficiently like-minded to cooperate effectively in a nationwide coordination of effort; (b) most principals are afraid of "progressive education"; (c) principals are critical of nonschool agencies trying to meet the needs of youth, but are not meeting such needs in the schools; (d) a growing awareness of the need to "teach, act, administer, and indoctrinate for democracy" is apparent.

Legal Provisions for Junior High Schools

A comprehensive study of legal provisions for junior high schools by Gary (132) dealt with the state statutes and session laws in all states, and legal provisions in twenty-six states. He reported that legislation is becoming increasingly detailed, but is generally permissive rather than compulsory on establishment of junior high-school units. He pointed out that although Utah, Colorado, Iowa, and Delaware have no legal provisions, they nevertheless rank near the top in reorganization of schools. There are wide variations in the provisions for state aid, or other forms of financing junior high-school units, and in provisions for regulation of the curriculum. Laws on standardization commonly cover definition of the junior high-school unit; conditions under which it may be established; course of study requirement; teachers' certificates and number of teachers employed; and methods of selecting textbooks. Only four states have enacted laws on transportation for junior high-school pupils.

Comprehensive Books

Several new books of importance in this field have appeared recently. Koos and others (138) brought together a great mass of important data in a comprehensive treatment of administrative matters. Perhaps no other single source can be used so advantageously by one who respects established facts. Newsom and Langfitt (140) published a book which dealt pointedly with the problems of administration in large high schools, a topic heretofore somewhat neglected. Thayer and others (154) published a report for the Commission on Secondary-School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association, which furnished a comprehensive approach to the problem involved in the reorganization of the secondary-school unit. Wrinkle's text (155) dealt with the philosophy of secondary education and Odell's (141) with the secondary school for prospective teachers. Belting and Clevenger (120) wrote on the internal functions of the secondary school. Shannon (150) issued a treatment of principles of secondary education, and Espy (130) offered a general text on administrative and teaching problems in secondary schools.

E. The Organization of Higher Education

JOHN DALE RUSSELL and ARTHUR A. WELCK

Research on the organization of higher education has been extremely limited during the preceding three-year period. Reviewed herewith are certain studies relating to enrolments, trends in certificates and degrees, plans for cooperation and coordination among higher institutions, and the legal status of the junior college.

Enrolment Trends

Two significant reports have appeared annually giving current information on enrolment trends in junior colleges (159, 160, 161), universities, and colleges (168, 169, 170). One other extensive study (164) has been reported, dealing with enrolment trends in institutions accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The annual studies made by Eells (159, 160, 161) showed that since 1928 there has been an increase of 41 percent in the number of junior colleges and an increase of 291 percent in the enrolment in such institutions. Of the 575 junior colleges, less than half (45 percent) were publicly controlled, but this group had 71 percent of the total junior college enrolment. California had approximately 10 percent of the junior colleges within its borders but had more than one-third of the reported junior college enrolment in the country. Only 142 of the 575 junior colleges were accredited by a regional association, although 512 were accredited by some agency.

Walters (168, 169, 170) reported statistics of registration in American universities and colleges, based on relatively complete returns from institutions accredited by the regional associations. His report for 1939, based on statistics gathered from 648 approved institutions, showed that there

were 873,697 full-time students and a grand total (including part-time and summer school registrations) of 1,323,874. These figures represented an increase of 3 percent in grand totals over the enrolments for November 1938. Walters pointed out that attendance gains for 1939 followed increases of 7 percent in grand totals for 1938 over 1937 and of 4 percent for 1937 over 1936.

Haggerty and Works (164) reported data collected during the academic year 1934-35 by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on enrolments in its member institutions at three-year intervals over the period from 1918-19 to 1933-34 inclusive. Enrolments in all types of institutions increased 96 percent during the fifteen-year period. The junior colleges increased their enrolments by a larger percent than any other type of institution. In general, those institutions in large centers of population were increasing their enrolments considerably faster than institutions in the less densely populated areas; exceptions to this trend were the teachers colleges and the publicly-controlled junior colleges. In the publicly-controlled degree-granting institutions as a group, the percent of students classified as juniors and seniors rose from 25 percent of the total enrolment in 1918-19 to 45 percent of the total in 1933-34; in the group of privately-controlled, degree-granting institutions the corresponding change was from 26 percent to 38 percent.

Parental Income and College Attendance

Many observers have suggested that economic ability is an important factor limiting the attendance at colleges and universities. An investigation to determine the extent to which economic conditions limit the attendance of capable young people at college was made by Goetsch (162), who based her analysis on the records of 1,023 pupils graduated from twelve Milwaukee public high schools in February and June 1937 and February 1938. Records from the state-wide testing program were used to select the most intelligent of the high-school seniors; the study was limited to those who had scores on the Henmon-Nelson test equal to state percentiles of 86 to 100, or intelligence quotients of 117 to 146. Students of this level of ability were assumed to be thoroughly capable of doing college work. Returns on the Wisconsin state income tax were examined to obtain the income of parents. Goetsch's findings revealed that only 35 percent of these capable boys and girls were full-time college students. Fifty-six percent of those not in college full time evidenced interest in further schooling. The median parental earnings for the full-time college group was \$1,988 and for all cases not in school at all, \$1,285. The percent of boys and girls not in college full time ranged from 6 percent for the income group of \$5,000 or over to 80 percent for the income group under \$500. The median parental income for students attending higher institutions in Milwaukee was \$1,604; for those students attending colleges in Wisconsin but outside of Milwaukee the median parental earnings were \$2,571; and for those in schools outside of Wisconsin it was \$3,125.

Certificates and Degrees

Haggerty and Works (163) made a study of the various types of certificates and degrees granted over a period from 1918-19 to 1933-34 by approximately 275 higher institutions on the accredited list of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1936-37. The trends were analyzed separately for publicly- and privately-controlled institutions, and for junior colleges, teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities.

The total number of two-year certificates granted each year in the institutions studied has been decreasing since 1924-25. This decrease has occurred largely in the college and teachers college groups, for the universities and junior colleges were increasing the number of two-year certificates granted. The data were carried down only to 1933-34, so there was no indication as to whether the decrease in number of two-year certificates was temporary, or whether the recent expansion of junior college enrolments and the developments in college organization at certain large universities, such as Minnesota and Chicago, would cause an increase in the number of two-year certificates since 1933-34.

The number of three-year certificates granted by these accredited institutions increased until it reached a total of 2,135 in 1930-31 and then decreased to 1,665 in 1933-34. The proportion of the total number of three-year certificates which were granted by the teachers colleges decreased from 1918-19 to 1927-28 and has been increasing since then.

The total number of institutions accredited by the North Central Association granting the bachelor's degree increased from 188 in 1918-19 to 232 in 1933-34. The total number of bachelors' degrees granted in the institutions accredited in 1936-37 increased from 11,158 in 1918-19 to 40,546 in 1930-31 and then decreased to 39,169 in 1933-34.

From 1918-19 to 1935-36 the number of masters' degrees granted by the institutions included in this report increased by 657 percent. Since 1930-31 this increase has been largely due to an increase in the number of institutions offering the master's degree. The major part of the increase occurred in the publicly-controlled colleges (institutions of the university type which were not members of the Association of American Universities were classified as "colleges" in this study). The percent of masters' degrees granted by the publicly-controlled universities (institutions on the member list of the Association of American Universities) decreased from 25 percent in 1918-19 to 13 percent in 1935-36. About one-fifth of the institutions granting the master's degree rate below the average of all north central accredited colleges on such significant criteria as preparation of faculty, salary of instructional staff, library facilities, and educational expenditure per student. Nearly half the masters' degrees were in the field of the liberal arts.

The number of doctors' degrees granted annually in this group of north central institutions increased from 230 in 1918-19 to 1,003 in 1934-35.

The number of institutions granting the doctor's degree increased from 14 to 27 during the sixteen-year period. In 1918-19 three universities (Michigan, Chicago, and Wisconsin) granted about three-fourths of all doctors' degrees; in 1933-34 these same three institutions granted only about one-third of the total number of doctors' degrees. The increase in number of doctors' degrees granted between 1918-19 and 1934-35 was considerably smaller among the group of universities on the member list of the Association of American Universities than it was among the group of institutions not holding this accreditation.

Edwards (158), on the basis of an extensive study of the success of graduates from various types of institutions in graduate schools, concluded that there was no valid basis for discrimination against graduates of teachers colleges in admission to the graduate schools of universities. Graduates from institutions on the approved list of the Association of American Universities had somewhat better success on the average than graduates from institutions not on this approved list, but factors of economic selection and the award of scholarships and fellowships may have influenced this result. Edwards further suggested that the admission of students to graduate schools might well be based on an analysis of the qualifications of the individual applicant, rather than purely on the basis of the institution from which the applicant received the bachelor's degree.

Cooperation and Coordination in Higher Education

In a study made for the American Council on Education, Klein (156) found that one of the major obstacles to cooperation and coordination was narrow institutionalism, defined as the attitude of devotion and loyalty to a single school which springs from some cause other than excellence in the performance of legitimate educational functions. A second major obstacle was plain ignorance on the part of controlling boards, administrative officers, faculties, educational organizations, the constituency of the institutions, and the general public. Other obstacles to cooperation and coordination were the influence of special interest and pressure groups, race antagonisms, politics, personal ambitions, administrative procedures, and legal barriers.

Klein classified the coordinating activities discovered, and listed twenty-eight types of cooperation. Examples of coordinating efforts included: unitary control of state institutions; coordination in metropolitan areas; special areas of coordination such as library service, laboratory facilities, evaluation of general education, institutes, and research in such fields as geology, astronomy, agriculture, Negro life, and child development.

Three approaches to the solution of the problems of incoordination of higher education were recommended: (a) the stimulation of interest in the correction of incoordination; (b) the discovery of pertinent information in regard to the problems involved; (c) the development of demonstrations of successful and profitable coordination among institutions and other educational agencies.

Sanford (166, 167), under the sponsorship of the American Association of Junior Colleges, made a study of inter-institutional cooperation and coordination among junior colleges. A questionnaire, sent to all the junior colleges in the United States, was returned by about 41 per cent of the institutions. The first part of the inquiry (167) was devoted to an analysis of the cooperative utilization of various types of community resources by junior colleges. Of the 229 junior colleges from which information was received, 21 reported some kind of a cooperative arrangement for library privileges with some other agency in the community; 17 reported similar arrangements for museum privileges. Smaller numbers of junior colleges reported cooperative arrangements in such areas as exhibits, concerts, visual aid materials, guidance and advisory services, gymnasium and athletic equipment, industrial plants and commercial enterprises, laboratory facilities, classrooms and campus, and hospitals. The most striking fact reported from the investigation was the small number of junior colleges which had arrangements of this type.

The second part of Sanford's study (166) dealt with the arrangements for branch junior colleges. The inquiry revealed a total of 31 junior colleges operated as branches of degree-granting colleges and universities. These 31 branch junior colleges were located in 15 different states, and were fostered by 18 different parent institutions. Twenty-five of the 31 branch junior colleges were publicly controlled. Stanford professed to find a "trend" toward the establishment of junior colleges as branches of degree-granting institutions, basing his conclusion on the fact that 18 of the 31 branch junior colleges were established between 1930 and 1939. To other investigators the number of branch junior colleges, in comparison with the total number of junior colleges, would scarcely have been considered a "trend."

Higher Education of Negroes

Serious difficulty has existed in providing coordinated programs of higher education in states that maintain segregated institutions for Negroes. The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Gaines case (*State ex rel. Gaines v. Canada et al.*, U.S.S. Ct. No. 57, Oct. Term, Dec. 12, 1938), which decided in favor of the demands of Negroes for equal opportunities for graduate and professional education, has complicated still further the problem of coordination (157). The case arose out of the situation in Missouri, which provided for a segregated institution for Negroes, Lincoln University, and which also provided by statute for the payment of tuition fees of Negro residents of the state for courses of study at other institutions equal to those offered at the University of Missouri but not obtainable at Lincoln University. A Negro by the name of Gaines demanded admission to the school of law at the University of Missouri on the grounds that Lincoln University did not have a school of law and that the provision for payment of his tuition fees at an institution in another state was discriminatory. The appellate court refused to compel his admis-

sion, and this decision was affirmed by the Missouri supreme court. The Supreme Court of the United States, however, reversed the decision of the Missouri courts. In the opinion of Chief Justice Hughes, "the pivot on which the case turns is the question whether the provision for the legal education in adjacent states of Negroes resident in Missouri is sufficient to satisfy the requirement that no state shall deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of its laws, prescribed in the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States" (157:80). This decision of the Supreme Court seems to have the effect of requiring states which do not permit Negroes to attend the same institutions as white students, to maintain within their borders duplicate facilities for the higher education of Negroes equivalent to those for white students as far as such facilities are demanded by qualified Negro citizens. The Maryland Court of Appeals in 1936 decided a somewhat similar case likewise in favor of the Negro applicant.

Legal Status of Junior Colleges

Nix (165) examined the latest available school laws of every state to discover all legislation that related to the status of the junior college. He found that only thirteen states had enacted legislation relating specifically to public junior colleges. Each of these thirteen states had set up general requirements limiting the establishment of junior colleges; these requirements usually related to attendance or local population, and to the minimum tax base. In some states the junior college district was coterminous with a school district, but in other states the junior college district could be a union of other districts. Nix stated that California and Missouri were the only states which have provided state support for junior colleges, but his information on this point was evidently incomplete, for Utah has provided the entire support of its public junior colleges from state funds. In fact, Utah was not even mentioned in the study as one of the states having provisions for junior colleges; this omission would lead to some question regarding the thoroughness of the investigation. Nix concluded that the states varied widely in their legal provisions for junior colleges, with respect to such matters as organization of the school district, permission to issue bonds, permission to tax, degree of support from tuition fees, responsibility for control of curriculum, and organization of the board.

CHAPTER III

The Administration of School Systems¹

THE RESEARCH related to certain phases of the administration of school systems at the elementary and secondary level is reviewed in this chapter. The topics included are: relationships between the superintendent and the board, administrative relationships to the personnel, rules and regulations of schoolboards, functions of administrative agencies, public relations, legal phases of school administration, and education of members of the service staff.

A. Relationships between the Superintendent and the Board

WENTWORTH WILLIAMS

The matter of superintendent-board relationships has received considerable attention in recent years, many contributions coming from magazine articles and surveys as well as from pure research studies. These contributions varied in length from brief allusions to carefully considered and extended treatments in studies such as those of the Advisory Committee on Education (180), the American Association of School Administrators (171), the Regents' Inquiry (187), and the comprehensive surveys conducted in the schools of Hartford, Connecticut (203), Stockton, California (199), St. Louis, Missouri (204), and Dade County, Florida (194). Geographically the contributions came from all parts of the country; administratively they stemmed from federal offices, committees of national organizations, state departments, civic organizations, college staffs, and individual writers; professionally they were prepared by federal and state experts, educators, professional administrators, and, significantly, by members of boards of education. This wide range of sources becomes even more important when it is noted that agreement existed on many points described as proper superintendent-board relationships. This consensus was evidenced by the number of writers who mentioned particular phases of the problem. It was also apparent in the articles which showed by context, if not by outright statement, that the writers were in accord with general opinion in the matter.

The proper functions and spheres of action for boards and superintendents received the most extensive and possibly the most emphatic treatment. Thirty-four sources asserted that the board of education is a legislative body, that it represents the public in the general area of education, and that its sole functions are those of policy-making and supervision. Forty-two articles held that the superintendent of schools, local, county, or state, was the executive officer of the board and should be so regarded.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 384.

The Advisory Committee on Education (180) pointed out that the duties of the state superintendent as an executive officer are clearly differentiated from those of the board which should be primarily those of policy-making. In the New Rochelle, New York, survey Graves (185) stated this differentiation clearly, as did Sears (199) in the Stockton, California, survey, Strayer (203, 204) in the Hartford, Connecticut, and the St. Louis, Missouri, surveys, and the U. S. Office of Education (210) in the Cincinnati, Ohio, survey. Fletcher (184) added an international touch to this consensus in his survey of Antigonish County, Nova Scotia. In the Regents' Inquiry (187) special stress was given to the judicial powers of the state commissioner which are a part of his executive function.

Numerous writers mentioned the fact that the line between the supervisory and the executive functions is extremely difficult to define. It is this factor which is most productive of overlapping in the activities of board and of superintendent. Consequently, certain specific problems are analyzed briefly in the treatments of this broad field. Prominent among these problems was that which is usually covered by the statement that the board of education, in collaboration with its executive officer, should draw up a code which enumerates the powers and functions of the superintendent. Carpenter and Capps (178) and Munzenmayer (195) made careful studies of the problem, and each presented a chart designed to show the functions of both board and superintendent. The U. S. Office of Education (211) and Wright (217) also stressed this point. Fourteen writers implied their agreement with this point, and some stated it when they stressed the importance of giving the superintendent authority commensurate with the position he is expected to fill. It is necessary only to glance at a few sources to catch the general viewpoint: Brown (174) and Herring (188), board members; Dunn (182) and Zelif (218), superintendents; Nanninga (196), Sears (199), and Strayer (204), educators; Graves (186), a state officer; and the U. S. Office of Education (211), to cite but a few, illustrate the range of contributors who have stressed the need of proper authority for the official who is charged with the total operation of a school system.

One arrangement which has caused the board of education to encroach on the executive functions of the superintendent has been the policy of appointing standing committees to carry on various phases of the board's work. Nine writers condemned this practice, while six took pains to commend the absence of such committees. Arnold (172), in the Bethlehem survey, condemned such committees, but was forced to suggest a Sinking Funds Committee as the law required. A clear-cut analysis of the faults which arise from the use of standing committees was presented in the U. S. Office of Education survey at Youngstown, Ohio (211). The California State Department of Education (189), the Regents' Inquiry (187), Strayer at Chicago (201), Fort Worth, Texas (202), and Sears (199) all condemned standing committees. Affirmatively, the Buffalo Bureau of Municipal Research (175), Nanninga (196), Strayer at Watertown, Massachu-

setts (205), and Holy (190) commended the absence of regular standing committees. Interestingly, Graves (186), at New York City, found it necessary to recommend three standing committees, instead of the fifteen in existence, because of the unusual size of the school system involved. However, he surmounted this apparent inconsistency in policy by recommending that the whole board should comprise each committee. It is equally interesting to notice that the American Association of School Administrators report (171) mentioned that eleven of fifteen schoolboards organized with three standing committees actually operated as a committee of the whole. The standing committees, found to be unnecessary, were discontinued.

Unless the superintendent is the sole officer responsible to the board of education, it is not feasible to appoint him the chief executive officer of the board. It is not surprising, then, to find that the multiple system of control was unacceptable to most educational authorities. Arnold (172) flatly recommended unitary control for Bethlehem, as did Holy (190) for Euclid, Ohio, and Strayer at Chicago (201), Fort Worth (202), Hartford (203), and St. Louis (204). The California State Department of Education (189) criticized an analogous condition in the dual school system of Palo Alto.

Another question which evidently complicated the relationships under discussion was that of the superintendent's prerogative of attending board meetings as a board member. The California Taxpayers' Association (176) reported that the county superintendent was a member of and secretary of the board of education of Fresno County. In the case of state boards, the Advisory Committee on Education pointed out that the state educational officer was an ex-officio member of the state board in twenty-five instances, chairman in eleven states, secretary in eighteen, and treasurer in one state. At the same time this report also stressed the fact that modern theory favors the concept of having the chief officer hold no status but that of executive of the board.

It should be noted that a large body of educational authorities held that the chief executive officer should attend meetings of the board. Many implied this relationship without actually stating the point flatly. Carr (179), for instance, would have him give to each member at the beginning of a meeting a carefully prepared docket of business, while Bolton, Cole, and Jessup (173) would have him responsible for businesslike meetings; the Advisory Committee on Education (180) pointed out that he should have a major part in the formulation and adoption of policies, while Wright (217) suggested that the board might well hold an occasional informal meeting without the presence of the superintendent. The California Taxpayers' Association (177), Deffenbaugh (181), and the U. S. Office of Education (211) advocated his presence at meetings, but without the privilege of a vote. Dunn (182), Fletcher, in Canada (184), Graves (185), and

Zeliff (218) urged that he attend all meetings and recommend policies to the board. Morphet (194), Nanninga (196), and Sears (199) would have him the secretary of the board. The Regents' Inquiry (187), as mentioned, would have the state commissioner at all but executive sessions of the board. Strayer and others consistently advocated his presence at board meetings.

The matter of policies was treated by several who would have the superintendent initiate, assist in formulation of, or execute policies—any one or any combination of these functions. The Advisory Committee on Education (180), Bolton, Cole, and Jessup (173), Fletcher (184), Deffenbaugh (181), and Dunn (182), to cite but a few, would have him initiate or recommend policies, and then execute them as well. Indeed, it may properly be stated that all who pointed to the superintendent as the executive officer of the board thereby implied his function of executing the policies adopted by the board.

Two related elements inherent in the superintendency, aside from the stress on his employer status by Brown (174), are those which placed him as the professional expert of the board, and also as the educational leader of the school system. Bolton, Cole, and Jessup (173), Deffenbaugh (181), the Regents' Inquiry (187), and Morphet (194) are among those who mentioned the professional expertness of the superintendent. His task of educational leadership was discussed by Arnold (172), Bolton, Cole, and Jessup (173), Carpenter and Capps (178), Graves (185), and Herring (183). As a matter of fact, those who looked to the superintendent to initiate policies implied their belief in his position as the educational leader of the community. In this connection, it is worth noting that Engelhardt (183), and the Regents' Inquiry (187) emphasized the belief that the board itself should exercise a definite leadership in the educational thought of the community.

Among other viewpoints expressed, three are worthy of note. The California State Department of Education (189) and Carr (179) mentioned that the superintendent is the contact man for establishing the public and community relationships of the school system. The other two viewpoints are more closely related and probably reflect the trends of general opinion during the last two decades. Bolton, Cole, and Jessup (173), Brown (174), Hull and Ford (191), and Zeliff (218) are among those who stressed the point that the whole school problem is a cooperative one, rather than one of discrete elements working in some sort of a harness. This democratic idea becomes even more significant when it is realized that increased importance is being attached to the idea of teacher and staff participation in administration, including policy formulation. Engelhardt (183) not only commended this but recommended the extension and improvement of the technics for such participation. Graves (186), Morphet (194), Strayer (202, 203, 204), and the U. S. Office of Education (210) also commended this practice as democratic and desirable.

B. Administrative Relationships to the Personnel

WILLARD T. JONES

Participation in Administration

The literature of the past three years has devoted considerable attention to the problem of personnel participation in administration. Much of this attention was in the nature of subjective opinion rather than research. Since practice, however, appears to lag in the application of democracy to administration, it seems advisable to consider recent published opinion as well as research.

Courtis (225) and Moser (236) found in separate questionnaire surveys that actual practice in democratic and cooperative methods fell far below the beliefs and desires of both teachers and administrators. Courtis (225: 20) reported that both teachers and administrators, in about equal numbers, believed in cooperative procedures, although the superintendents were more enthusiastic in their approval than the teachers. A later statement in the report, however, declared that teachers were more anxious to move toward democratic practice than were the administrators. Moser (236: 13) found no wide gap between the goals sought by teachers and those sought by administrators; both desired an increase in teacher participation in school administration. He also found that approximately 70 percent of the teachers and administrators wanted a substantial amount of teacher participation in administrative functions. Both studies indicated that administrators reported more participation than teachers did. Inferences are that administrators may not realize that they are using dictatorial methods, or that teachers may not recognize their activities as participation in administration.

In a summary of research (237:96) it was reported that teachers have been and always will be important participants in the administration of schools. In fact, it was shown that schools could not operate without such teacher participation.

It is generally agreed that participation of teachers and other school employees in certain areas of policy-making and execution is a desirable form of democratic administration. Engelhardt (229:13) answered the objection that teachers are not qualified to participate by expressing the view that "as society has provided more years of training for teachers, and has set up broad requirements for certification, the lag between teacher understanding and administrative appreciation of education's problems has been considerably lessened." Palm (238) pointed out that teachers are better trained now, and that to continue to let the intelligence, training, and experience of the profession go unutilized would be a waste of human resources. Strayer (241:68) emphasized the fact that the democratic administration of a school requires that the best thought of all teachers be made available to administrative officers and to laymen who have been given responsibility for the determination of policy. Strayer, Jr., (240:9)

commented that without teacher participation the superintendent loses a sense of values or perspective if he attempts to perform his job with only clerical assistance. Dewey (228) expressed the idea that habitual exclusion of teachers from participation had the effect of reducing a sense of responsibility for what was done, and that the best way to produce initiative and power was to exercise it.

Pittenger (239:18) limited cooperation in administration to situations in which there was reasonable expectation for improvement in policies, and restricted the participants to such persons as could really help. Bimson (221) agreed with this point of view by showing that not all phases of administration lent themselves to teacher participation. Only matters of large general concern should occupy the attention of cooperative groups.

Bimson (221:102) and many others agreed that the most important consideration in connection with the problem of participation in administration was the point of view and the attitude of mind of the parties concerned. Some form of implementing organization also seemed necessary. Cooperation is possible only when co-workers understand the aims of the entire group. In fact, one of the chief arguments for participation in administration is that democracy is not only a mode of living to be taught in school systems, but it is actually a life process to be experienced daily in the work and achievements of the school (221).

Disagreement existed on the question of whether collective thinking is superior to individual thinking. Many believed collective thinking to be superior. However, Cubberley was reported to have said that collective thinking was better only to a limited extent, and that too much collective thinking resulted in a type of town meeting muddling along. Stoddard summed up the situation by saying that collective thinking is not always better, but it brings about a readier acceptance of the necessary steps to put the thinking into effect (221:86).

Despite some disagreement, it was generally held that every plan of administration should place real responsibility upon some person or group to see that approved policies are put into action and that decisions are made by a responsible person. Participation should not be used as a substitute for expert advice and service. The superintendent is a trained professional expert and should use his knowledge in effective leadership and as a basis for making selected final decisions. Supporting this point of view, Bimson (221: 100-101) stated that a truly democratic type of administration recognizes the importance of centralized responsibility and final authority. The great difference between democratic and autocratic methods lies in the spirit in which the work is done and the means used in arriving at decisions concerning policy. Strayer (241) declared that certain decisions should be made by the head man, and that it was unwise for him to pass this responsibility on to his subordinates.

It was shown that care should be exercised to prevent rule by incompetent, uninformed, self-seeking minorities. Democracy means control by all the people through properly constituted representatives. Bimson (221:

100-101) found that decentralized administration could be fully as lacking in opportunity for individual expression as a highly centralized plan.

McFarland (235) reported the view that class consciousness and group antagonism were being generated among school workers. In his opinion, the teachers were feeling secure in recently enacted legal tenure and were attempting to raise artificial barriers between school administrators and their staffs. He believed they were more concerned with teachers' rights than with pupils' rights, and reported Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, as believing that if there existed full faculty control in colleges there would be neither freedom of speech nor freedom of teaching.

A point of common agreement was that a clear distinction must be made between the function of policy formulation as such and the administration of policy. Engelhardt (229: 12, 16) and Pittenger (239) pointed out the necessity of recognizing the peculiar abilities and services of individuals. The former (229) stated that it is absurd to believe that many teachers can participate to any major degree in administration without neglecting the areas of service for which they have been selected. Teacher participation should be so developed that expertness is enhanced rather than diminished. Pittenger (239) urged that the peculiar assets of specialists should not be wasted on matters outside their respective fields.

Most writers were in agreement that all personnel should support and assume responsibility for policies formulated through democratic processes, even though execution was placed in the hands of others. McFarland (235) raised the question as to who should be responsible in the event of the failure of policies democratically arrived at. He answered the question by saying, "Everybody, in other words, nobody."

Several methods of organization for participation were reported. Matzen and Knapp (234) discussed a questionnaire submitted to eighty-nine superintendents by W. E. Zimmerman which established five levels of participation in twenty-nine administrative functions. They were: (a) teachers are given complete responsibility, (b) participation is restricted to committee members, (c) teachers cooperate with administrators, (d) teachers offer suggestions, and (e) no participation. Likewise, Bimson (221:51-52) reported several different methods of participation. Cooke (224:318) found that organized participation had legal power in very few cities.

The Second Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (231) advocated that teachers should counsel with boards of education more often than is permitted in common practice and that they should not be represented before the board exclusively by the superintendent. A suggestion was that the staff could designate representatives to meet by invitation of the board to act in an advisory capacity. Pittenger (239) pursued this idea further by suggesting that real democracy in administration would permit the parents and pupils to select the teachers, the teachers the principals, and the principals the superintendent. Fawcett (230) reported that a com-

mittee of twenty-five teachers chose a successor to the director of the Ohio State University School. Asfahl (219) suggested the use of committees for administrative participation. He also reported an example of this procedure in which teachers were becoming less autocratic in the classrooms, and in which the board of education welcomed the scheme because it gave better foundation to the policies submitted to the board by the superintendent.

Bimson (221) used the educational jury technic in evaluating statements of philosophy underlying the theory and practice of personnel participation in administration. He also attempted to ascertain conditions and describe situations which make for effective participation. He recommended that all employees be given an opportunity to participate in a cooperative study of administrative problems to a degree consistent with their desire, ability, and available time. The nature of the administrative problem was also a factor in determining the amount and quality of participation. Further, he urged the adoption of plans especially designed for each local school system.

Bimson's statement (221) of seventeen principles bearing on the problem of staff participation in administration brought together much of the best in current practice and opinion. The need for further study of the problem was clearly indicated. Cillié (223) found that as between communities having decentralized school control and those having centralized control, the former permitted more experimentation with methods and materials not contained in the curriculum, more experimental materials to be placed in the schools, more teachers to conduct experimentation through encouragement by the superintendent, and more teacher participation in the selection of supplies.

Administration of Nonteaching Personnel

Davis (227) proposed to determine whether approved personnel procedures in administration tend to be associated with evidences of adequate performance in nonteaching services. Documentary analyses, checklists, interviews, and field observations were used in collecting data bearing on attendance, nursing, and secretarial service. Statements of principles of procedure and checklists of desirable performance were used as measures of personnel procedures and adequate performances, respectively. Cities in three states, sampled by cost per pupil and number of pupils per teacher, with populations ranging from 30,000 to 150,000, were used in the study. Davis (227) found no evidence in any of the twelve cities visited to indicate that a comprehensive program of personnel administration for nonteaching employees was being followed, but she pointed out that the systems which were above the average in carrying out the proposed principles of personnel administration tended also to be above the average in performance of certain aspects of the three nonteaching services. She reported that little direct attention was being given to administration of the nonteaching personnel. The study did not show that there existed any

causal relationship between personnel procedures and adequate performance. Davis found little help for the superintendent in the existing situation, but she developed a set of guiding principles which are valuable in building a program for the administration of nonteaching personnel.

In a survey of the status of janitorial personnel in the school systems of the larger cities in the state of New Jersey, Kleckner (232) reported that no general policy for the selection and training of such personnel was in existence. Fifty-four percent of the janitors in service had taken no examination of any kind. Only 39 percent had taken a physical examination, and about 7 percent had taken examinations involving ventilation, heating, sanitation, mechanical ability, and educational qualifications. The median janitor had left school between the age of fourteen and fifteen, after having completed the eighth grade. Less than 2 percent had been graduated from a four-year high school. It was recommended that departments of education in the various states should set up definite requirements for school janitorial positions, and that janitorial personnel be provided with two-week summer courses built around janitorial service.

Linn (233) presented late developments in the selection and retention of building service employees. Crayton (226) discussed duties and qualifications of various secretarial and clerical positions in the schools, and recommended in-service training and opportunities for advancement of such personnel. Bennett (220), using the questionnaire method, studied the problem of employment and utilization of secretarial and clerical employees by administrative and instructional officers in teachers colleges and normal schools, and pointed out areas in which conditions might be improved. His report is reviewed more extensively in Chapter IV.

C. Rules and Regulations of Schoolboards

ABEL A. HANSON

Inasmuch as previous issues of the *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH* have not treated the topic of this section, the studies here reviewed extend to earlier research on the subject. The basic philosophy for rules and regulations of boards of education was developed during the twelve-year period from 1915 to 1927 by Theisen's study (296), Cubberley's treatise (251), Strayer's summary (286), Olsen's thesis (276), and Engelhardt and Engelhardt's book (259), in which volume basic principles and checklists were presented. Contemporary with these works was the survey movement in education, which was reaching a height during the period in question and which contributed numbers of practical opportunities for applying the basic philosophy to existing situations.

Theisen (296) proposed to discover the duties that are important for a board of education to perform, as opposed to those which are professional, administrative, or trivial. He sought those functions that should be delegated to a professional chief executive and the scope of authority that

should be given him. Further, he proposed to discover how a lay board might exercise efficient control of the responsibilities imposed upon it by the state. After examining the work of many representative boards of education and soliciting the opinions of 531 judges, he concluded that the most important duties of boards of education were to select the chief executive officer and support him in his duties, to pass upon the annual budget developed by the superintendent and his staff, to debate and pass upon the superintendent's recommendations relative to capital outlay, to afford a group judgment on the superintendent's recommendations concerning the scope of educational activities, to appoint teachers and other personnel upon the recommendation of the superintendent, and to determine the salary schedule in consultation with the superintendent. The work of standing committees was reviewed in a manner to show numerous inefficiencies, and it was suggested that a proper understanding of board functions, with rules and regulations to state these functions, would eliminate standing committees entirely in many cases and reduce the maximum number to three in others.

Theisen (296) also examined the then current situation as regarded the authority actually given to the superintendent and concluded that school boards had not learned the lesson offered by business organization: that efficient results could be obtained by giving the chief executive large powers, by holding him responsible for results, and by designating him as the one to initiate new policies. Based on his study of the existing situation and on the needs of the schools in terms of the opinions of 531 judges, Theisen (296) finally presented a suggestive set of rules and regulations for a school board of seven members.

Olsen (276) in 1926 engaged in a study of the exact nature of the work of boards of education to determine the functions a board should perform for itself and the functions it should delegate to its employed professional chief executive and his subordinates. He defined a policy as a decision by the board as to how problems or jobs should be solved or administered, and administrative detail as the application of a policy to an individual problem or job. He proceeded to examine 143 specific problems and jobs taken from the minutes of representative boards of education, and described in detail the decisions to be made by the board in each case and the jobs to be delegated to the superintendent. He concluded that standing committees should be abolished in order to conserve the time and energy of board members, to eliminate divided responsibility, and to prevent inefficient administration, and that the superintendent should be made chief executive in fact as well as in theory. He further concluded that the rules and regulations of boards of education should be drawn so as to establish definitely these relationships.

Since Olsen's study (276), the most consistent and significant contribution in the area of board rules and regulations has come from public school surveys. The major emphases and findings of the surveys since 1930 reflect the trend toward professional refinement in school adminis-

tration. Space is lacking in this review for a complete treatment of the recommendations in school surveys with respect to board rules and regulations, but the bibliography lists a number of survey reports (242, 245, 248, 260, 265, 266, 268, 269, 274, 278, 285, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 298, 301, 302) that have treated this problem.

Several states have conducted statewide surveys of local school units which have contributed substantially to the field of effective rules and regulations. In the case of Oklahoma (275) it was shown that state law had never specified the supervisory and administrative services which should be rendered by any administrative unit. The proper distribution of duties and responsibilities between the board of education and the superintendent was determined entirely by the rules and regulations of the county boards of education. Accordingly, there was proposed a six-point discussion of administrative standards to be used as a basis for developing rules and regulations, and the recommended duties of the county superintendent were listed under five heads as a pattern for the county boards of education to follow. A study of local school units in Tennessee (295), in a manner similar to that of Oklahoma (275), presented the powers and duties of the county boards of education, as well as of the county superintendents of schools.

A major emphasis in all of the surveys has been the centralization of authority in the hands of a chief executive officer. Bimson (246) presented historical evidence to show that in many cases this development had resulted in administration from the top down with little regard for the recent trend toward democratization in education. However, he proposed to show that democracy in school administration was not only possible and desirable, but that it was operating effectively in certain representative school systems. Phases of administration in which employees could best participate were curriculum and instructional matters, selection of supplies and equipment, general administrative matters, welfare of employees, finance, pupil welfare, and interpretation of the schools to the public. Methods of participation listed from existing practice included administrative advisory councils, teachers' councils, informal procedures, conferences, questionnaires, teachers' meetings, open forums, committees, organized faculties, approved experiments, cooperative projects, and professional organizations. No evidence was presented that democratic philosophy was apparent in existing rules and regulations, but seventeen philosophical principles were enunciated, the application of which to rules and regulations would permit of democratic participation in school administration.

A checklist for rules and regulations of boards of education prepared by Sheppard, Neely, and Gentry (283) emphasized the democratic principle both in the preparation of the rules and in the application of the rules to a specific situation. The board of education at East Orange, New Jersey, (258) adopted rules and regulations representative of the principles outlined by Sheppard, Neely, and Gentry.

A study of rules and regulations completed by the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association (272) granted that although most teacher contract forms were defensible, practically all contracts required the teacher to abide by the rules and regulations of the board of education, and since the teacher was not familiar with these rules, the way was open for the enforcement of unreasonable regulations. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to discover the types of rules which teachers may blindly agree to obey. Fifteen hundred sample rules were selected for analysis from the rulebooks of forty cities over 100,000 population. Few regulations were found which in themselves were objectionable. Adverse conditions were adverse only by comparison. Privileges granted in some cities were more generous than in others, and restrictions in some cities were more severe than in others. Rules on schoolboard organization, plans for its meetings, duties of its officers, and functions of its committees were generally apparent. Rules on salary schedules and leaves of absence were second in frequency. The affairs of the business offices and custodians were third, and rules for pupils were found to be least frequent.

As regards rules for the selection of teachers, most of the cities required the superintendent to nominate from prepared eligibility lists. Although contract forms were usually required, the tendency was to abandon their use. Very few cities granted permanent tenure. The practice on teacher resignation, voluntary and compulsory, was widely variable. About half of the schools used efficiency ratings, rarely as a basis for salary increments, but frequently as a basis for promotion. Salary schedules were usually specified on the basis of position, or preparation, or both. Wide variation existed in the matter of leaves of absence of all types. Over 600 of the 1,500 rules had to do with what teachers could or could not do. There was more agreement in the things to do, but the "shall nots" were more explicit. A pressing need was indicated for a wider dissemination of the rules and regulations among the involved teaching personnel.

Recognizing the growing importance of the nonteaching personnel in the total school program and the need for considered policies in its administration, Davis (252) studied three areas of nonteaching service and reported that, whereas in the past most emphasis had been on the work to be done, there was now a need for increased emphasis on the people doing the work. A basic assumption was that competent service by the nonteaching personnel would tend to assist teachers in rendering more competent service. A definite need was shown for a greater awareness on the part of professional leaders of the essential unity of the entire school staff. As a basis for treating the problems of the nonteaching personnel intelligently in the rules and regulations, twenty-one principles were presented which dealt with planning and leadership, development of personnel resources, classification and salary scheduling, terms of employment, distribution of personnel, working conditions, and appraisal and interpretation. Checklists were developed for performance in elementary school secretarial service and for the broad area of nonteaching personnel.

A few studies have been made on the application of rules and regulations to particular officials. Greenawalt (261) examined schoolboard specifications for superintendents of schools and reported the most frequent of thirty-six specifications were fairness and honesty. The study (261) showed that these specifications were frequently not written into the formal rules and regulations. Peters (277) examined the work of the secretary of the board of education in small school systems and reported the need for a manual of instructions and procedures affecting the duties of the secretary. Drake (256) studied the work of the clerk of the board of education and urged the subordination of the clerk to the office of the superintendent of schools. Griewe (262) investigated the relation of the superintendent to the schoolboard in the consolidated schools of Iowa, and in addition to revision of the state law, urged the adoption of a code of ethics upon which to operate. Scanlon (281) presented schoolboard regulations governing the principal, and Boston, Massachusetts (280), published revised rules for custodians.

Some states have given publicity to rules and regulations governing state boards of education, and many towns and cities have published important revisions of their respective rules (244, 249, 253, 254, 267, 270, 273, 279, 284).

D. Functions of Administrative Agencies

WARD G. REEDER

State boards and departments of education—During the last three years three studies on state boards and state departments of education have appeared. All of these deal, at least to some extent, with the functions of the administrative officers of those boards and departments. The most comprehensive of these studies was made by Frederic (306) and covered legal and actual practices pertaining to the personnel in the state department of education in each of the forty-eight states. Some of the more important topics studied were the following: functions and classification of department personnel; selection of personnel; qualifications of personnel; and tenure and retirement provisions. Numerous shortcomings in the laws and present practice were pointed out and ways and means of correcting them were mentioned.

Reeder (307) analyzed the constitutions and statutes of the several states pertaining to the state board of education. He also studied actual practices pertaining to the board. On the basis of these practices and general principles of school administration he recommended desirable features for such boards, with special reference to Ohio.

Other administrative officers—The Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools, appointed by the American Association of School Administrators, made a preliminary report and a final one. Both reports dealt primarily with local superintendents. The preliminary report (303) gave the legal requirements in each state for the school superintendency,

a tabulation of the courses offered for superintendents by the colleges, and an analysis of the state codes of ethics pertaining to superintendents. The final report (304) reviewed a series of case studies of twenty-six representative superintendents. The Committee was primarily interested in ascertaining the personal characteristics and administrative procedures of successful superintendents.

Cocking and Gilmore (305) have made an excellent summary of principles of school organization and administration, both state and local. In the main, their report summarizes and synthesizes previous research; however, some original research is reported by them.

E. Public Relations

WARD G. REEDER

Although much continues to be written on public school relations, only a small amount of the material can be called research. Every year sees the publication of dozens of magazine articles on such topics as the need for a public school relations program, standards for such a program, and how a certain school or school system is handling its program. Every year sees an improvement in the public relations program of the schools, especially in the written agencies such as school reports, student newspapers, school house organs, teachers' and students' handbooks. Almost every year also sees the appearance of a general treatise or textbook in the field of public school relations. During the last three years four textbooks or general treatises have appeared, these being authored by Grinnell (309), Moehlman (310), Reeder (311), and Yeager (312).

The number of scholarly and extensive researches on public school relations which have been made in former years can almost be counted on the fingers of one hand. Only one such study has appeared during the last three years. That study was made by Foster (308) who examined the editorials on education which appeared in twenty-five newspapers selected at random during the five-year period from 1930 to 1935; in all, 8,939 editorials were examined.

In this study, characterized by unusual clarity and charm in reporting, Foster showed that about 31½ percent of all editorials during the period studied were devoted to education and that one-fourth of them were "adversely critical" of education. The chief topics editorialized were athletics, school costs, purposes of education, and school personnel. Topics almost completely ignored by the press were the following: specific school subjects; methods and procedures used in teaching; measurement of the outcomes of instruction; vocational education; success or failure of students; character education; vocational guidance; treatment of controversial issues in the classroom; nonpromotion and failures; tenure of teachers; special education for the handicapped; and adult education.

The study concluded with a statement of needs by the press and by school officials and employees. It recommended that school officials and employees cultivate an "alertness to the public viewpoint" without, of course, being subservient to "every public whim and fancy" (308:289).

F. Legal Phases of School Administration

WARD G. REEDER

The outstanding document on school law continues to be the *Yearbook of School Law*, which has been published since 1933 by the American Council on Education under the editorship of M. M. Chambers. The *Fifth Yearbook* (313) appeared in 1937, the *Sixth Yearbook* (314), in 1938, and the *Seventh Yearbook* (315) in 1939.

From the beginning of the yearbook the policy of its editor has been to make each number a review of the court decisions on education which appeared during the previous year. Most of these decisions have been on phases of education which may be classified as school administration. The decisions have been organized by various topics; among the most frequently occurring are rights of pupils and parents, tenure of school officials and employees, contracts, and tort liability. Each yearbook usually contains from twelve to fifteen chapters on topics such as those mentioned. Each chapter usually has a different author.

Educational Law and Administration (319) continues to be the chief source of information for current decisions of the courts on school matters and for current school legislation. This monthly magazine runs many brief articles on such decisions and legislation. It also occasionally runs summaries of more comprehensive studies of school law.

Chambers continues to be one of the most prolific students of school law in the United States. In addition to editing the *Yearbook of School Law* and contributing some of its chapters he has found time every year to publish several magazine articles on various phases of school law, especially court decisions. During the last three years he has reviewed the court decisions on teachers' unions (318), the transportation of parochial school pupils at public expense (316), and the school architect's contract (317).

Keesecker (320) has given a classified review of educational legislation enacted during 1937 and 1938. The National Education Association has summarized the legislation of the various states on school revenues for the years 1934 to 1938 (326). It has also made an analysis of legislative provisions of the several states regarding state teachers' retirement systems (321), minimum salaries for teachers (325), and teacher tenure (324). The association has also made a summary of the court decisions on teacher retirement for the decade from 1930 to 1939 (322) and another summary of the court decisions on teacher tenure reported in 1938 (323).

Woellner and Wood have summarized the requirements for the certification of teachers and school administrators in the various states (327).

G. Education of Members of the Service Staff

WARD G. REEDER

The last three years have seen an unusual paucity of research on custodians, bus drivers, clerks, and other members of the school service staff. In fact, only one outstanding research in this area has appeared during the period. That study was made by Davis (328) and undertook to "determine whether or not approved personnel procedures in the administration of the nonteaching personnel of the schools tend to be associated with adequate performance of certain nonteaching services in twelve school systems" (328: 13). The three nonteaching services studied were school attendance service, school nursing service, and secretarial service. Inasmuch as this study has been reviewed in preceding sections dealing with administrative relationships to the personnel and rules and regulations of boards (Chapter III, sections B and C), reference will be made here only to the phases of the study that concern the education of these nonteaching members of the service staff.

Under the topic of "Development of Personnel Resources" Davis (328) dealt extensively with the induction of new employees and the growth and development of employees in service. Two general principles were enunciated in this connection: "Through a carefully planned program of induction into service, employees should find opportunity to learn the program and aims of public education in the community, to understand the relation of their own work to the total program, and to grow in individual skills" (328: 122); and "The program of personnel administration should seek to develop continuously the potentialities of each employee to the fullest, and to recognize these potentialities both in planning and in carrying out the work of the schools" (328: 128). Procedures to accomplish these aims, as found in the cities visited, were described. The study further reported that there was general neglect of the administration of the nonteaching personnel, this neglect being due to (a) inadequate staff assistance given to superintendents, (b) the failure of superintendents to see the need for a broad program of personnel administration, and (c) the lack of research on crucial phases of personnel administration. In the field of personnel administration the study must be ranked as one of the most scholarly and practical ever made. In every way it is an outstanding document.

By stretching the imagination slightly, four other publications may be included in the category of research on the school service staff. In the main, though, these presented summaries of principles of good practice rather than original research. Three of these works, namely those by Mase (329), Rogers (331), and Viles (332), dealt with the school custodian. The fourth written by Reeder (330) discussed the school bus driver and his work.

CHAPTER IV

The Administration of Higher Education¹

JOHN DALE RUSSELL and ARTHUR A. WELLCK

ONLY A FEW research studies in the field of college and university administration have been reported during the past three years. A survey of the recent literature in this field reveals much opinion, speculation, general discussion, and description, but little by way of scientific, objective study. It would be a mistake to conclude from such an observation that all the problems of college and university administration are solved. The studies that are included in this review deal with the governing boards of state institutions and with the status of certain kinds of administrative officers.

A. Status of Governing Boards

McNeely (340) analyzed the status of the governing boards for state institutions of higher education with respect to their situation in the general plan of state government. The study gave special attention to the legal status of boards, the effects of government reorganization on them, and the general powers over them that have been vested in the principal executive offices of the state. McNeely pointed out that there are in general three different types of boards, classified according to their legal status: (a) those having their origin in or deriving their power from the state constitution, known as constitutional boards; (b) those that have been created as corporate bodies and derive certain of their powers from the fact of incorporation, known as incorporated boards; and (c) those having their origin in and deriving their power from the statutes enacted by the state legislature, known as statutory boards.

A considerable number of states have undergone reorganization in their systems of state government in recent years. Accompanying these reorganizations has been a distinct tendency to bring governing boards of state universities and colleges under the jurisdiction of the governor and other executive officials of the state. The boards controlling higher institutions have frequently been made component parts of the executive branch of government. Corporate powers vested in the boards have been withdrawn by many state legislatures, and authority over the administration of certain phases of the internal affairs of the institutions has been transferred from the boards to executive officials of the state. This tendency was especially evident among the statutory boards and also among the boards incorporated by special action of the legislature. The tendency changed

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 390.

markedly the former legal status of governing boards, under which they were assigned a detached position in the state governmental organization and enjoyed a large degree of autonomy over the management of their institutions. Institutional boards having powers derived from the state constitution or some other form of exceptional legal standing have in general been immune from this development.

Chambers (336, 337), in an analysis of legislation affecting state boards of control, found that three states, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin, had recently altered the structure of the governing bodies controlling state-supported higher education. The reorganization in North Dakota was especially significant, inasmuch as it represented a public reaction against certain occurrences under the previous type of control. Prior to 1938 the control of higher education in North Dakota was vested in a salaried board, with a majority of its members appointed by the governor. This board had charge of all kinds of state institutions; prisons, reformatories, and hospitals, as well as the institutions of higher education. Certain acts of this board at the state agricultural college precipitated a referendum on a constitutional amendment which completely changed the character of the board for the control of the higher institutions. This self-executing constitutional amendment, which was carried by a substantial majority, took the institutions of higher education out from under the control of the old board, and created a new board for them. This new board consists of seven members appointed by the governor with the consent of the senate, each appointee being selected from a panel of three names submitted by a committee consisting of the chief justice of the supreme court, the superintendent of public instruction, and the president of the North Dakota Education Association. The new board was directed to appoint a state commissioner of higher education to serve as its chief executive officer.

In a review of court decisions in 1938-39 affecting higher institutions, Chambers (335) pointed out a significant decision of the supreme court of Tennessee regarding the appointment of members of the board of Southwestern College at Memphis. Among other issues in the case was the form of acceptance which the Synod of Mississippi was requiring its appointees to the board of Southwestern College to sign. This form of acceptance contained numerous clauses purporting to retain in the Synod control over the college and to limit to a considerable extent action by board members. Chambers reported: "It would appear from the decision of the court that all of this form except the promise to obey the charter of the corporation is repugnant to the law. Educational corporations are answerable to the state for the lawful execution of their corporate purposes, and attempts of denominational bodies to exercise control over them to an extent greater than is provided for in their charters will meet defeat" (335: 72).

B. Administrative Officers

The President

Hughes (339) sought to discover the backgrounds of college and university presidents from a study of 300 chief executive officers of the "more important" American institutions, whose biographies appeared in the 1938-39 issue of *Who's Who in America*. He found that eight states supplied half the 300 presidents; the other half came from 31 states and 6 foreign countries. Twenty-nine percent of the presidents were serving in their native states. The north central states, in proportion to their population, have produced more presidents of the institutions studied than any other section of the country.

These 300 presidents held baccalaureate degrees from a total of 180 different institutions. There was no special concentration of bachelors' degrees in any one institution, Harvard leading the list with 9 presidents and Yale and Indiana following with 6 each. Only 129 of the 300 college and university presidents held the Ph.D. degree. Columbia had granted 32 of these degrees, Harvard 20, Chicago 14, Yale 8, and Cornell, Johns Hopkins, and Pennsylvania 6 each.

Most appointments to presidencies in this group came between the ages of thirty-four and fifty-two. From 25 to 30 vacancies occurred each year in the presidencies of these 300 institutions, indicating an annual turnover of almost 10 percent. The average length of service of the presidents in office in these institutions at the end of 1938 was 9 years.

Fifty-two of these chief executives were called to their present positions from other college or university presidencies; 79 from deanships; 68 from professorships; 18 from other college executive offices; 27 were active clergymen; 12 were business executives; 13 were executives in national posts; 9 were executives in minor political posts; 12 were superintendents of schools; 4 were editors; and 6 held miscellaneous positions.

Dean of Men

Findlay's (338) report on the "Origin and Development of the Work of the Dean of Men in Higher Education" is an abstract of his doctoral dissertation written at New York University. He found that the first dean of men was officially appointed at the University of Illinois in 1901. The median date of establishment of the office in 89 institutions studied was 1924. The office was considered on a par with other administrative posts in the relatively few institutions where it had been established. Salaries for the position have steadily advanced. The office of dean of men was found to be peculiar to American institutions, and nothing corresponding to it was found in a representative sample of European and South American universities.

The deans of men in active service at the time the study was made had held that office for an average term of 9 years. Deans were being chosen increasingly from nonacademic fields, although the majority of recent

appointments was still made from other lines of educational work. The number of deans of men holding the doctor's degree was increasing. Specific graduate preparation for the office was becoming a definite factor in the selection of deans of men. Of the deans of men with teaching duties, more were drawn from the field of the social sciences than from any other teaching field.

Recently there has appeared a tendency either to discontinue the office of dean of men or to change it into a new and expanded form. This development has frequently meant a change to a more inclusive title and to a widening of the scope and functions of the office.

Deans of Teachers Colleges

Bond (334) studies the status of the dean in teachers colleges, using as source material the catalogs of 146 state teachers colleges and other information about these institutions taken from Marsh's *American Universities and Colleges*. A review of six previous studies indicated that there was no general agreement regarding the duties of a college dean, except in the matter of supervision of discipline. Approximately 60 percent of the teachers colleges studied by Bond had a dean. The tendency for a teachers college to maintain the office of dean increased with the size of the enrollment and the amount of the annual expenditure. Approximately half the deans of teachers colleges included in this study held the doctor's degree and more than 90 percent had the master's degree or higher qualification. More than half the deans served as head of some department and practically all of them either taught or had some departmental duties outside the office of dean. Of the 83 deans who taught, 27 were in the department of education. The teaching load of the teachers college dean was about half that of a full-time teacher.

C. Secretarial Assistance

Bennett (333) reported a study of secretarial assistance in teachers colleges and normal schools, based on questionnaire returns from 155 institutions. The investigation dealt extensively with working conditions of secretaries, and reported an average working week of five and one-half days or 43 hours. Vacation practices varied so widely that no norm of practice could be reported. Student clerical helpers were reported to be used chiefly for supplying assistance in emergencies, and to be given the work largely from a desire to help them. The norm of practice in teachers colleges was to provide one secretary or other full-time clerical helper for each 111 students enrolled. A large percent of the institutions maintained a central office staff or secretarial pool for the provision of clerical assistance to other offices and instructors. The budget for clerical assistance has averaged about 4 percent of the total operating budget; the percent decreased during the financial depression. The report concluded with a list of 22 suggested further studies.

CHAPTER V

The Administration of Special Educational Services¹

CERTAIN SPECIAL educational activities require definite arrangements for their organization and administration. It is the purpose of this chapter to review the research that has been conducted with reference to the organization and administration of five kinds of special activities: (a) adult education; (b) special schools and vocational schools; (c) correctional education; (d) community educational organizations and youth groups external to the school; and (e) extracurriculum activities.

A. Adult Education

CYRIL O. HOULE

Although the previous treatment of this topic in the October 1937 issue of the REVIEW (347) was a general summary of all literature in adult education, the present review deals only with organization and administration. All types of adult education activity are included, however, except those dealt with later in this chapter in the sections on correctional education and community educational organizations.

In general, it may be said that the literature of adult education is composed largely of descriptions of individual programs and expressions of viewpoints, dealing only incidentally with organization and administration. In the past three years, the *Studies in the Social Significance of Adult Education in the United States*, issued by the American Association for Adult Education, have constituted the most important single source for descriptive material of this sort. There have been relatively few studies which might be called scientific or analytical.

General studies—Debatin (346) in his general textbook in the field summarized much of the current thought and reported several studies which he had made to discover prevailing practices in certain areas of administrative activity. Reeves, Fansler, and Houle (353) surveyed adult education activities in New York State and made several specific proposals designed to facilitate the extension and coordination of the program in that state. Atwood (341), in studying the facilities provided for Negroes in Kentucky, also concluded that coordination was the greatest need and offered a number of suggestions as to how it might be effected. The adult education council as a method of coordination was analyzed at length by Kotinsky (351). Hendrickson (349) collected a large number of courses of study and analyzed them in terms of current educational opinion. On the basis of this analysis, he offered a number of recommendations as to how these courses of study should be administered. Gibbons's study (348) pointed out the need for improved organizational practices in the provision of visual materials to adult classes.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 391.

Because of the relatively recent development of adult education, most teacher-training work in this field is in-service rather than pre-service in nature. Crawford (344) and Smith (356) studied various programs concerned with the selection and in-service training of teachers. Both of these studies reported that training programs were needed by the teachers studied and that it was possible to develop satisfactory courses in the principles of adult education.

Studies of specific agencies—In addition to the more general studies reported above, there have been several which dealt with one aspect or agency of adult education. Most of these are concerned with the public school programs. Both Maxwell (352) and Scannell (354) found a wide variety of practices in their studies of state legislation for public school adult education. Maxwell reported that twenty states provide funds for this purpose, twenty-two states have authorized local schoolboards to use their own funds, and six states make no mention of adult education in their legislation. Trout's study (357) of finance in California revealed the fact that, in 1935-36, adult education received 4 percent of all state aid to the public schools. Hoskins (350) studied the evening school activities of sixty central rural schools in New York State and reported a number of facts concerning them. His major recommendation was that the schools cooperate more fully with other adult education agencies.

Much has been written in the last three years with respect to the library and adult education. Of this literature, the most important sources so far as administration is concerned are the two volumes edited by Chancellor (342) and Wilson (358). Both are compilations of analytical studies and descriptive accounts of particular programs. Chancellor (343) also made a detailed study of the library in the adult education program of the Tennessee Valley Authority which led him to the conclusion that the pattern of organization found there would probably be significant for future development. A broader account of the entire adult education program of the Tennessee Valley Authority was presented in a series of studies edited by Seay (355).

Davis and McGinnis (345), in their comprehensive survey of the University of Minnesota program of parent education, gave some attention to matters of organization. They found that a large amount of adaptability in procedures and organization is essential for the best development of parent education.

B. Special and Vocational Schools

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and LEWIS H. MAHONEY

Special Schools

Statistics pertaining to special schools and classes for exceptional children reported in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* (364) indicate that the 418 public and private residential schools in conti-

mental United States for the blind, deaf, mentally deficient, and delinquent enrol 74,280 children. The survey also reported that 776 cities enrol 297,307 children in special day schools or classes, in the hospitals, or at home. Of this enrolment only 39,125 are in schools housed in special school buildings and 258,282 are in special classes or groups not separately housed, in hospitals, or at home.

Taylor (379), in a series of articles, gave an annual summary of residential and day schools for the deaf from 1887 to 1936 with enrolments for the same years. The study revealed a trend toward day schools as opposed to residential schools. The writer predicted a continuation of the trend and accounted for it on the basis of parents' desire to have children at home and to have them taught orally. Arguments for and against day schools were presented. Annual per capita costs in one state were given as \$569.82 for pupils in residential schools and \$314.45 for those in day schools. The evidence with respect to the superiority of either type of school is inconclusive.

Controversy similar to that concerning residential and day schools is found also with respect to the relative desirability of special schools and special classes. Postel (375) discussed the question and presented what he deemed the advantages of the special school for socially maladjusted or problem children. Ingram (366), contending that slow-learning children are more like than unlike others, favored pupils' remaining in home districts and opposed separate schools.

Blauch (362), in a staff study for the Advisory Committee on Education, described the federal program of vocational rehabilitation of the physically disabled under the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 and subsequent related legislation.

Berry (361) estimated by two methods the number of physically disabled children of the country to be about 1,800,000, of whom only 166,248, or 9 percent, are enjoying the special provisions for education and training which they need. Arguments for federal aid for special education closely parallel those for general federal aid for education. Lee (367) made a similar plea for federal aid for education of the physically handicapped.

Matheison (368) made a study of hospital schools in the United States. He stated that the number of hospital schools in the United States may be conservatively estimated at between 300 and 400. The number of children of school age in need of such schools was estimated at 50,000 to 60,000. Reports from 115 hospitals showed that about 66 percent of patients of school age were receiving instruction. One hundred and fifty-seven hospital schools reported 348 full-time teachers and 90 part-time teachers. Matheison's bulletin (368) included recommendations with respect to administration, supervision, finance, teachers, child accounting, curriculum, educational facilities, attendance laws, and legislation for hospital schools. Digests of the laws pertaining to hospital schools in

seventeen states and a list of the schools replying to the questionnaire were included in the appendixes.

Miles (371) wrote in favor of honor schools rather than honor classes for gifted children, supporting his choice on the basis of his experience in New York in work with gifted pupils (Evander Childs High School). On the same subject Alpern (360) wrote favoring a superhonor high school for the near-genius and genius types; he referred to similar recommendations for elementary schools and universities by Hollingsworth and Terman, respectively.

A survey of the education of exceptional children in Los Angeles, reported by Tritt (380), indicated there were more than 500 teachers in Los Angeles educating 16,000 exceptional children. A note in the *Journal of Exceptional Children* (372) told of the opening in San Francisco of a new building housing two separate organizations, one a health school and the other a school for crippled children. Merideth (370) gave an account of the Roosevelt School for Physically and Mentally Handicapped Children in Pasadena. Faulkner (363) stated that there are now thirty-one white and eight colored occupational centers in Baltimore, with a total enrolment of 3,150 for average dull-normal children. McCooley (369) listed thirteen types of pupils for whom special instruction is given in New York, and reported that 8,430 of New York's 13,000 physically-handicapped children attend school in regular buildings. In Minnesota, only St. Paul, Duluth, and Minneapolis provided facilities for the special education of crippled children, according to Friswold (365). Only St. Paul (Lindsay School) and Minneapolis (Dowling School) provided special schools.

Vocational Schools

Rapid increase in enrolment in vocational courses in secondary schools in recent years has brought to the fore problems regarding the organization for vocational education. A report of the Vocational Division of the Office of Education (381) showed enrolments under state plans to have risen from 1,176,162 in 1932 to an estimated 1,810,150 for 1938. Of the increase of 633,988, only 36,076 is accounted for by the addition of business education to the areas covered by the state plans.

Studebaker commented editorially in *School Life* (378:23) "I trust that during the coming year increased progress will be made toward a unified plan of total education and that lines of demarcation between so-called general and vocational education will be further removed." The *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* (359) indicated that such a trend is taking place in other countries. "Technical education, as clearly noted, has been coming more and more within the control of the national ministries of education—except in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—and is being more closely coordinated with general education." This closer coordination of vocational and general education is one of the major recommendations in a staff study by Russell and others for the

Advisory Committee on Education (377:71). "The close relationship between vocational and general education indicates that within the state the program of vocational education should be set up as an integral part of the regular school system."

Norton and the staff investigating vocational education for the Regents' Inquiry in New York State (373) studied the favorable and unfavorable effects of the segregation characteristic of the present program of vocational education. They concluded that the time has come when initial vocational training should be made an integral part of the general educational system. The organization for vocational education, especially at the federal and state levels, is presented in a series of chapters in the study by Russell and others (377) previously mentioned. He recounted briefly the development of the federal program and summarized amounts of federal funds appropriated or authorized under the various acts. The federal organization is described and criticisms and recommendations relating thereto are made.

Norton (373) pointed out the great inequality of opportunities for vocational education in New York. He found these inequalities especially in the field of industrial and technical education. Enrolment in all-day trade and industrial courses was confined (1935-36) to thirteen communities and two state schools of agriculture. These communities, with two exceptions, had a population of at least 60,000 each. Eighty-seven percent of the boys and 97 percent of the girls enrolled in these courses lived either in New York City or in Buffalo. The tendency to establish separate schools was marked in the technical and industrial fields. Virtually the entire enrolment in vocational industrial education was in separately organized vocational schools. The possible necessity of "using separate schools to serve a group of districts" in order that opportunities might be more general throughout the state was suggested by Norton (373). Among other writers expressing similar views, Paine (374) said of the grade level for vocational education, "Experience has taught that grades 10, 11, and 12 are the best fields for this type of vocational work and this level in time will probably be raised to grades 11, 12, and 13, on account of the trend toward later employment of youth in all American industries."

Rakestraw (376) stated that the cooperative part-time diversified occupations program "has grown from a few programs in 1934 to some 600 at the close of the last school year (1938-39). Each of the states in the southern region now has programs of this type, varying in number from five to thirty, with an approximate total enrolment of 5,000."

C. Correctional Education

GLENN M. KENDALL

Correctional education has developed rapidly in the past ten years and is now being placed on a basis which merits the attention and interest of educators. "An encouraging sign is that administrators of state and local

educational systems are at last becoming alive to and interested in the part they can play in the work of controlling crime at every stage of the process from the prevention of juvenile delinquency to the training of the adult prisoner in preparation for parole" (435:17-32). In 1938 the American Association of School Administrators included a section on correctional education at the annual meeting at Atlantic City. The 1939 meeting of this same organization allotted a general session to the subject. In 1933 the New York State Vocational Association first organized a section on correctional education which has met annually since that time (435:31). *Education Within Prison Walls* by Wallack, Kendall, and Briggs (439) was included in the list of the sixty best educational books of 1939.

Correctional education is, then, beginning to achieve a recognized place among the more established types of education. Further evidence of the increasing importance of this field is that for the first time a section on correctional education is being included in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH.

Sources of data on correctional education—Pugmire's guide (421) to the literature on penal education carries to 1934 and includes all important bibliographies, magazines, and other sources of data in this field. The Kuhlman *Guide to Material on Crime and Criminal Justice* (401) lists all material on this subject up to and including 1927. The two volumes of the Culver guide (388) begin with 1927 and carry the material through 1937. The research worker can, by using the above references, cover any phase of correctional education and treatment.

Scope of this section—Correctional education is a broad subject and touches many related fields which cannot be treated within the limits of this report. The attempt here is to review only the more important studies which have some direct bearing on the organization and administration of correctional education. Because of the limits of space it has been necessary to eliminate the treatment of many phases of correctional education, such as the causes of crime, the characteristics of the inmates of penal institutions, the history of the development of penal education, curriculum and teaching methods, guidance, libraries, and recreation.

Aims and Objectives of Correctional Education

MacCormick (405:11, 12), who is an outstanding authority on correctional education in the United States, stated that "the prisoner is primarily an adult in need of education and only secondarily a criminal in need of reform. The aim of correctional education is to extend to prisoners as individuals every type of educational opportunity that experience or sound reasoning shows may be of benefit or of interest to them, in the hope that they may thereby be fitted to live more competently, satisfyingly, and cooperatively as members of society." A basic tenet of those engaged in correctional education has been well stated by Governor Lehman. "Prac-

tically all of those now serving sentence in our institutions will be free in less than ten years, a majority in five years or less. . . . It is axiomatic that correctional institutions must somehow accomplish the reformation or rehabilitation of a substantial number of their prisoners if they are to give society anything but temporary protection" (404:28).

A New York State law passed in 1935 defines correctional education broadly as designed to socialize the individual inmate by improving his skills, knowledge, and attitudes (412:88). Specific objectives of a program of correctional education were given in the Engelhardt Commission report (412:70) as follows: to develop vocational skills, to lead inmates to clearer understandings of modern social and economic problems in order to revise undesirable social attitudes, to develop acceptable proficiency and essential academic skills, to stimulate and develop new desirable interests and skills in worthwhile leisure-time activities, and to develop the ability to get along with people and to live cooperatively as members of approved social groups. The Commission also gives specific objectives for the phases of their program designated as social education and vocational education. Francis (391) and Goodykoontz (397) listed similar objectives.

Wallack (436), after studying detailed data on the social histories, attitudes, and other characteristics of 533 boys at Elmira Reformatory, described the education of the prisoner as psychotherapy and stressed the need to study and treat the total personality of inmates. He gave a twenty-three point program of education based on a psychiatric philosophy.

Establishing and Administering a Program of Correctional Education

MacCormick (405:10-12) listed fundamental academic education, vocational education, health education, cultural education, and social education as the five major aspects of an educational program in a correctional institution. "The following facts need to be emphasized: (a) we must not expect too much in the way of either quality or quantity production; (b) we must not assume that programs and routine in and of themselves are accomplishment; (c) education for prisoners must be individualized; (d) education for prisoners must be 'adultized'; (e) education for prisoners must be broadly inclusive in its offerings; and (f) contrary to the present practice of most institutions, compulsion should be applied sparingly." The importance of basing educational programs on individual inmate needs is repeatedly stressed (407, 410, 417, 424, 426, 427, 431).

The Lewisohn Commission (415:55) outlined a program for each of the correctional institutions in the New York State Department of Correction. Cranor (387) stressed the danger of carrying over too much public school technic into the prison school. McGee (407) listed a ten-point plan for good institutional programs of education, including recreation, industrial programs, religious instruction, general, and vocational education.

Rosenberger (423) presented the following major factors in a good educational program: (a) standard examinations of every admission; (b) individualized academic and vocational training to meet the needs of the inmate body; (c) a complete analysis of all inmate institutional jobs; (d) a department including guidance, counselling, placement, and program designing; and (e) good educational facilities and qualified instructors (423:267). Rosenberger also offers ten good criteria for an educational program in correctional institutions (423:263).

The Engelhardt Commission (412:72-74) listed nine types of activities under social education. These activities stressed the participation of the inmate in activities which would enable him to develop social attitudes and habits. Twenty-five recommendations were given dealing with all phases of correctional education including the relationship of education to institutional administration, the administration and supervision of education, the educational budget, physical facilities, parole and placement, and college and university training courses for correctional teachers. This report provided a long range program for correctional education.

The latest and most complete statement of what the educational program should be in the correctional institution and suggestions as to how all phases of education can be organized and carried on is given in the first yearbook of the Committee on Education of the American Prison Association (435), to which twenty-eight writers connected with correctional institutions in all parts of the United States contributed. The nineteen chapters deal with all phases of correctional education.

Selection and Training of Educational Personnel

The Gluecks (393) in their recommendation for improving reformatory education stressed the need for "not only ordinarily good teachers, but exceptionally qualified ones—men and women with patience and ingenuity who possess training in psychology, in addition to their pedagogical equipment. Our schools of education have not yet recognized the need of carefully selecting and training teachers for the particularly difficult and delicate work of rehabilitation of character deviates." Pugmire (422) by questionnaire and examination of the records, studied the training and background of the personnel in the correctional institutions in New York State. He found that only 59 percent of the instructional staff had any college training, and that 22 percent had no high-school education.

Wallack (437) gave in detail the organization and procedure used in the New York Central Guard School. While guards are not usually classed as educational personnel, the newer concepts of correctional institutions consider all members of the personnel who come in contact with inmates as primarily teachers in the broadest sense of that term (437:39). The course of study for this school indicates that a major objective is to develop this realization of their responsibility on the part of guards.

A training course for college women in the social adjustment of girls was conducted at the New York State Training School for Girls in 1933

(430). The Engelhardt Commission (412:118) stressed the value of the course in correctional education which was conducted at Teachers College, Columbia University, for a number of years.

Better preparation and in-service training of educational personnel were emphasized and the New York State qualifications for various types of such personnel were given by Scarborough (435: Chap. 8).

Inmates as teachers—There is no agreement on the value of inmates as teachers and the problem has not been subjected to research (422:72). The Engelhardt Commission (412:86, 87) opposed the use of inmates as teachers. The reasons why inmates are not usually satisfactory teachers and an analysis of subjects to which they should be assigned if they must be used were summarized in a report of the Division of Education of the New York State Department of Correction to the Engelhardt Commission (435:159, 160, 192, 193).

Evaluating the Educational Program

The studies of the Gluecks (393, 394, 395, 396) are characterized by careful sociological research work as well as by the application of statistical technics to the data. In general, they do not credit the two reformatories studied with the success on parole of any large percent of the 500 men and 500 women whose postinstitutional careers were traced.

Elliott's follow-up study (389:13) of 125 girls ten years after release from Sleighton Farms is similar in technic to those of the Gluecks although not as comprehensive. It antedated the Gluecks' studies and "represents the first attempt to test objectively the program and methods of modern reformatory training . . . (and) it thus offers for the first time some light on how far correctional education actually corrects." The results were considerably different from those reported by the Gluecks. Of the Sleighton Farms group, "76 percent have eventually made a seemingly stable adjustment in the eyes of their own community." The study did not attempt to determine to what extent subsequent adjustment was facilitated by the training received at Sleighton Farms.

Close (383) gave a good composite picture of the program in four modern institutions for juvenile delinquents in New Jersey and Connecticut. She found that these institutions were running a twenty-four-hour a day program, that each institution was concerned almost entirely with the education of the individual child, and that education was the crux of every phase of the program, whether academic, vocational, recreational, or disciplinary. "These schools . . . are proving that the training school can be a constructive social force, an instrument for individual rehabilitation" (383:310).

Wilson and Pescor (440:252) concluded on the basis of their interviews of thousands of inmates that it was practically impossible to reform men in penal institutions, and stated that "all these experiments (to rehabilitate inmates) have been fully tried." No one familiar with the status of prison education today would agree that education has been fully tried in any

correctional institution and most certainly not in the adult prisons, which are the institutions about which Wilson and Pescor were writing. Harrison and Grant (398) also believed that the incarceration of delinquents and criminals, particularly the younger group, should be almost entirely discarded as it is administered and organized at present.

The Osborne Association (384, 385, 386, 392) periodically surveys and evaluates the programs of correctional institutions as an independent organization interested in the improvement of penal treatment. All schools surveyed in 1929 and those institutions in the west north central states surveyed in 1938 conformed closely to MacCormick's classic description (406) of prison education programs, and the situation with respect to vocational education was even worse (35: 7). A survey of institutions for juvenile delinquents in the Middlewest and in Kentucky and Tennessee by the Osborne Association (386) in 1940 resulted in similar findings. The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor (432, 433) corroborated the findings of the Osborne Association concerning programs of treatment and education in institutions for juvenile delinquents.

The Prison Industries Reorganization Administration has conducted several surveys of penal institutions in various states in recent years and for the most part found it necessary to recommend organization or marked improvement in educational and training programs (418, 419, 420).

One of the most thorough surveys of an educational program of an institution which resulted in a marked change in organization, personnel, and method was that directed by Withers assisted by Minard and others (409) at Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry, New York. Six features of the new program were given. Whereas prior to the change most of the disciplinary reports came from the school, the school now supplies the fewest reports of any department and boys dislike staying out of school.

Wallack (439: Chap. 4) and Nixon (416) presented case histories to show the effects of the educational program on a limited number of inmates. Just how far scientific research can go in determining the effects of education in correctional institutions is problematical (439). Lane and Witty (402: 700) showed that 650 delinquent boys at the St. Charles, Illinois, School for Boys made average gains approximately equal to the acquisitions of typical public school children during a comparable period of time, even though the St. Charles boys attended school only three hours daily.

The actual success or failure on parole might well be studied further in cooperation with boards of parole. Studies closely related to the type just suggested have been made in attempting to develop technics and devices for predicting success or failure on parole, by Borden (382), Vold (434), Tibbitts (429), and Hart (399).

The Public School and Delinquency

A separate chapter of an issue of the REVIEW could well be devoted to "Education, Crime, and Delinquency." From penologists, social workers, and correctional educators, a challenge goes out to public education to ac-

cept more responsibility for the potential delinquents and to do something to prevent them from entering correctional institutions (438). Hill (400) went back to the schools which 165 young men at the Illinois State Reformatory had attended to investigate their records. The causes for the excessive retardation and failure assigned by the teachers, such as low mentality and ability, lack of interest, excessive absence from school, indifference, lack of effort, and poor home surroundings, placed most of the responsibility on the boys' deficiencies. "Nothing was said of any possible responsibility on the part of teachers or school" (411: 56).

Lawes (403) did not lay major responsibility for criminal behavior on the schools, but his contacts with thousands of inmates caused him to conclude that the schools failed to interest many children, that there was too much mass education, that more vocational and other education fitted to the individual child was needed, and that more social and character education should be given.

That the schools are becoming aware of the problem of maladjustment and delinquency is shown by the studies which have been made in recent years. In 1932 the National Education Association (413) issued a Research Bulletin which presented data on education and crime and suggestions as to steps which schools should take. Spaulding (428) emphasized education's responsibility toward crime. Maller (408), who studied the school and community for the New York State Regents' Inquiry, found that juvenile delinquency varied greatly in different communities; he stressed the responsibility of school and community in areas of high delinquency. The Jersey City plan of coordination of police, schools, courts, and other community agencies, under the leadership of the school, appeared to be achieving remarkable results (390).

New York City attacked the problem vigorously in 1935. A joint committee appointed by the board of education in 1938 presented surveys of what the schools were doing and forty-five specific recommendations for making the school and the community meet the needs of children so as to reduce delinquency and maladjustment (414).

Needed Research in Correctional Education

It should be evident that the field of correctional education is practically wide open for valid research. This is true of the fields of teaching methods, personnel selection and training, curriculum construction, administration and supervision, experimental projects, and the like. To date, almost without exception, the projects labeled "experimental" have been so only in their uniqueness and are not experimental when judged according to scientific research criteria.

Sellin (425: 474) stated in 1932 that "I am compelled to admit that penological research has not yet rendered much aid in the solution of the important and highly practical problems." But he asserted that only more and better research will put correctional work on a better basis. "In a correctional system . . . research must . . . be utilitarian and chiefly con-

cerned with the practical application of its results to penal treatment. It should be conducted for the deliberate purpose of suggesting means, however tentative, for solving the many problems in human relations which face the correctional worker" (425: 471).

D. Community Educational Organizations and Youth Groups External to the School

STANTON LEGGETT

Any study of the organization and administration of education would be incomplete without consideration of the educational activities of community agencies other than the schools. The present day finds problems existing which, if they are to be faced, require the utmost effort of all groups engaged formally or informally, consciously or unconsciously, in the educative process. The combination of these two factors—that agencies other than the schools do educate, and that the problems to be met are of such importance as to require the cooperation of all such organizations—has the effect of making this an increasingly important area of education.

The research in the field of community educational agencies has been previously reviewed by Rugg (490), who treated the material from the point of view of educational sociology. Morgan (477) discussed the research on community agencies, including the family, recreation, motion pictures, and the like, from the standpoint of mental health.

Community Analysis

The study of the broad pattern of community life and the effects of institutions in the community upon the people has, particularly during the last decade, become an effective point for orientation in the problems of the community in general and education specifically. The work of the Lynds (474) may be cited as a well-known example.

Sears (491) writing on school and community surveys reviewed this type of research. Colcord (452) developed an outline or guide as an aid to the study of community welfare agencies. A comprehensive study of the social survey, made by Young (503), treated the history, method, and presentation of community studies, and included excellent bibliographies.

Library

The library is one of the oldest and best established of community educational agencies. The social aspects of the growth of the library were examined by Ditzion (454) in a historical study of the role of the library in social reform. Waples (496) studied the influence of the depression upon the reading habits of people. This research emphasizes the shift in reading interests and points out indirectly the changing role of the library in education.

A general survey of the work of the library with particular reference to adult education was made by Johnson and Harvey (470). A comprehensive portrayal of library service was completed by Joeckel (468) as a staff study for the Advisory Committee on Education. This work analyzed the contributions of localities and of the federal government to the library. A major conclusion concerned the inequalities in library service between sections of the country and proposed federal aid to libraries as a means of equalizing this phase of education. Wilson (499) found a similar inequality in distribution and status of libraries in the United States and recommended that the state assume the burden of financial responsibility for this service. He also discussed the geographical distribution of bookstores, magazines, daily newspaper circulation, moving pictures, radio, and telephone as additional phases of the same general problem.

Studies of libraries in separate sections of the country have been made by Humble (467), Waples and Carnovsky (495), and Chancellor (449). Humble pointed out the importance of the rural library problem. Waples and Carnovsky analyzed the administration of public and school libraries in the state of New York. Chancellor related the library to the adult education work of the Tennessee Valley Authority.

Museums

The educational importance of the museum has been too long neglected. Part of the fault lies with the museum and part with the community. Adam (441, 442) in general surveys of the museum as an educational agency, on the basis of personal visits and observations of museums in action, evaluated the types of museum activities that make the greatest contribution to the education of the adult population.

The most comprehensive research in the field is by Ramsey (488). This study is an analysis of the development, methods, and trends of the museum and an evaluation of its work. She concluded that nowhere are these institutions used to full advantage and that more active participation must be developed on the part of the users of the resources. She advocated better training of teachers to use museums, stimulation of creative work, and more freedom in the use of the materials and collections of the museums. The book includes a careful survey of the literature in the field.

There has been little research pointing the way to a more dynamic role on the part of the museum in the development and analysis of the community. Emphasis upon the past has, in most cases, outweighed the more positive function which the museum can assume.

Adult Organization

The American Legion is the only private adult organization that has been the subject of intensive research in recent years. Gellerman (463) studied the American Legion as a pressure group, emphasizing its policies.

Further research in this field has not been carried out in recent years. Suggested studies would include the investigation of the educational programs of service clubs, chambers of commerce, the National Association of Manufacturers, labor unions, political parties, and similar groups in the population.

The role of the arts in community education has been treated in generally descriptive studies by Carter and Ogden (448) who have stressed the place of the theater in the community. Van de Wall (493) pointed out the importance of music as an educative force. Moor (476) emphasized the combination of music and the dance in his treatment of community agencies. *Enriched Community Living* (453) described the arts program carried out in Delaware under emergency relief auspices. The rural arts program, embracing the whole field of arts, recreation, and education was described by Patten (484), particular stress being placed on the activities of the Agricultural Extension Service in stimulating such community education programs.

Private National Youth Organizations

The Boy Scouts of America is an important national organization of youth with a definite educational program. Research in this field includes that undertaken by the research service of that organization. A study of the effect of scouting in less-chance areas is an example of the efforts of the agency in that direction (446).

Nicholson (481) evaluated the Boy Scout movement in this country. After commenting favorably on the various health building and recreational factors of scouting, he criticized the tendency to inculcate the acceptance of authority and habituation in obedience. Decrying conformity, he suggested increased emphasis upon the development of individual initiative. Further recommendations included greater concern with major social issues in the educational program of scouting.

The Girl Reserve movement of the Y. W. C. A. was analyzed by Vance (494). She traced the history of the movement and the relation of this activity to present day educational thought. Suggestions for the improvement of the organization centered upon the development of a more flexible educational program.

Atkinson (444) made a general survey of the activities of the Boys' Club. The material was gathered from written sources and from personal experiences as an executive in the national organization.

Recent studies of the educational activities of the Y. M. C. A., Y. M. H. A., Y. W. H. A., Y. W. C. A., the Junior Red Cross, the American Youth Congress, and the International Society of Christian Endeavor, to cite only a few of the larger private youth groups, would be a great aid to any attempt to understand the work and the effect of the national private youth-serving organizations.

Federal Educational Agencies Operating in the Community

The report of the Educational Policies Commission on *Federal Activities in Education* (479) gave a general overview of the work of the United States Government in education. The description of the work of the Agricultural Extension Service was particularly important. It was largely a descriptive work, drawing its materials from reports of the agencies, written materials, and the text of laws establishing the various services.

Johnson and Harvey (470) in a staff study for the Advisory Committee on Education described the activities of the National Youth Administration. They called attention to the needs of youth and evaluated the contribution of the NYA to the solution of the problem. McNassor (475) studied the result of NYA employment on work traits by means of ratings by supervisors. He found some improvement. He suggested further study on relation of kind of work to improvement in work habits, whether there was a carry-over into industry, and whether those youths with project experience adjusted to employment better than those without such work.

Campbell, Bair, and Harvey (447), also in a staff study of the Advisory Committee on Education, appraised the educational activities of the Works Progress Administration. They recognized the advances made by this authority in the fields of the expansion of nursery and adult education, experimentation in education because of lack of a prescribed formula, and the principal application of the efforts in the areas of the underprivileged. The authors stated that theoretically WPA education did not duplicate regular education as the functions of relief education were limited to those not provided by existing authorities. Because of the limitations of the study no investigation was made of this point. A plea was made for greater cooperation between WPA directors and state educational authorities.

Harby's study (465) of education in the Civilian Conservation Corps camps contained a history of the work camp movement and an evaluation of the educational work of the CCC. He suggested more attention to the educational aspects of the work, and stabilization and refinement of the educational program. In regard to administration, he proposed unification of all CCC work under one authority highly sympathetic to education. Holland (466) reported on the importance of labor camps to youth. His data were gathered from authoritarian and democratic countries in Europe. It is helpful as a contrast and comparison with the experience of the United States with the CCC camps. The guidance and recreation phases of CCC education were examined by Oxley (483). He recommended that advisers in camps sense more carefully the educational possibilities of directed recreation.

The growth and development of the Public Employment Service of the United States were summarized by Atkinson, Deming, and Odencrantz (443). This book contained an analysis of the need and the fundamentals of public employment service. It placed a timely emphasis upon the assistance of governmental authorities in finding jobs for and placing youth in

remunerative positions. The book also showed the supplementary phases of relief work, for example, getting youth off relief and into industry.

The junior extension program of the United States Department of Agriculture was treated by Works and Morgan (501) as a section of their study of the land-grant colleges. They stated that the 4-H Clubs were mostly concerned with those who were already enrolled in school and they pointed out the need for care of older rural youth.

Youth Needs

The youth problem has become one of the urgent points on the agenda of American education. The investigation of youth, usually characterized as those between the ages of sixteen or eighteen to twenty-four or twenty-six, has produced results that offer a fair basis for the determination of the most pressing problems of this group. Three studies of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education have been made. Bell (445) in *Youth Tell Their Story* reported a survey of youth aged sixteen to twenty-four and including interviews with 13,000 individuals. This study brought to the fore the urgent social problems faced by young people. The research stressed the need for security and greater educational equality. Fuller (462) studied the needs of youth in a small community, Muncie, Indiana. He stated that youth needs were not met by existing agencies because of the absence of community planning in light of the knowledge of the needs of all youth. Robertson (489) made a similar study with similar results, stressing the need for educational equality and economic security. He used Dallas, Texas, youth for his source material. The Works Progress Administration made a study of urban youth (502) and determined that lack of money was the principal reason why children left school after the eighth grade. The Educational Policies Commission (478) after a careful survey of the literature and review of the evidence, suggested a program of effectively free education including the supplying of funds to enable children to remain in school.

Community Coordination

Shulman (492) studied four slum areas of New York City during prosperity in 1926 and during two depression years, 1931 and 1932. He gathered material from over 500 families and case records of 1,536 boys between the ages of two and twenty-one. He tried to determine the effect of community agencies upon the families and individuals. His conclusion was that the problems of recreation, physical welfare, social rehabilitation, and economic well-being were too great to be solved by uncoordinated efforts. He pointed to the school as the one institution that contacts all the children and recommended that the school be used to take care of the task of social adjustment.

Recognizing that the schools and other community social service agencies were overlapping in function and that other areas were being

neglected, the Educational Policies Commission (480) developed a statement of sphere of operation for the various agencies. Among the major recommendations were the inclusion of library and recreational services under a public education board, and separation of school from health and welfare services in the community, although stipulating that if no other agencies could be found to deal with cases, the schools should do it. The Commission viewed the social services in the community in a somewhat narrow sense, yet offered a program of action that would wipe out some of the evils of lack of coordination. Klein and others (471) examined the agencies and institutions of Pittsburgh that provided social and health services. They continually reflected these agencies and their operations upon the background of community life.

Exhaustive research has been made in several communities and on a nationwide scale to determine those agencies that are working in these fields and to show what activities they are engaged in. The Federation of Social Agencies of Pittsburgh and Allegheny County (460) listed and described all the organizations engaged in social work within the district of the Federation. The bulletin of the organization publishes local research that is helpful in guiding the development of work in Pittsburgh. New York City (459) and other large cities publish similar directories. Chambers (451) and Lindsay (473) published directories of youth-serving organizations which listed character of organization, membership, purpose, history, program, officers, and publications. Chambers (451) included also financial statistics.

Numerous towns and cities went forward with the plans for coordination of community effort in attack on social problems. Yourman (504) reported the progress made in community coordination and gave suggestions for further study in the field. Witchell (500) described the work carried on in Madison, New Jersey, coordinating the efforts of the organizations of that town, a pioneer in this field. The Central Planning Board of the Council on Social Agencies of Elizabeth, New Jersey (456), reported the progress made in the six-town plan for a communitywide attack on social ills. Included was a report of progress on research in the locality.

Wider Use of School Buildings by Adults

In Colonial America, the school building played an important part in housing the activities of the distinctly local communities. Town meetings, religious gatherings, social events, debates, and musicales were the typical group activities carried on within the buildings, which were often constructed by the cooperative efforts of the members of the community. The century of American history following 1800 witnessed tremendous strides in the spread of common public education for children of school age. At the same time, education ceased to be a community function and confined its attention to the needs of children. The school building lost its implication as a center for people to use, and became a place to house

occasional meetings, lectures, athletic events, night schools, and the like.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, the need for activity of a recreational nature for the people in the growing urban centers became apparent. Rainwater (487) pointed out in his research made in 1922 on the play movement in the United States, that the recreation movement had a great effect upon the community use of school buildings and grounds. Perry's studies (485) on the extent of the use of school buildings by the community in 1915 and 1918 showed the effect of the recreation movement which began about the turn of the century. He found in 1915, with a total of 603 cities reporting, that 345 indicated community use of school playgrounds. His tables showed that athletics, gymnastics, and active games were the most popular types of activity in programs for community use of schools.

The community center movement, starting in 1907 with Ward's experiments in Rochester, New York, gained headway and, coupled with the recreation movement, resulted in a fairly widespread movement for greater use of the school plant by the adult members of the community. The theme of this movement seems to have been the encouragement of greater interest of and participation by the people in the civic affairs of the community.

In 1924 Glueck (464), in cooperation with the United States Office of Education, made a survey of community use of school buildings in the United States. The Glueck study is particularly strategic in the appraisal of the movement with which it is concerned. The data, upon which the book was based, were gathered in 1924. Up until 1924 the term "adult education" was not in use in the United States in connection with any of the developing phases of the movement for community use of school buildings.

Recent years have seen a revival of the interest, current in the 1920's, in the wider use of school buildings, both from the point of view of more efficient use of the heavy investment in school property, and from that of informal adult education and community betterment through use of facilities available at the expense of the people as a whole. The increase in the literature during the depression years reflects the increase in interest in this movement. Unfortunately, little research has been reported. Reference to the previous section of this issue of the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH will give reference to the literature on adult education, much of which is carried on within school buildings and which is the more formal aspect of the movement.

Engelhardt (457) recommended planning of school buildings for a wide variety of uses by adults. He used in evidence abstracts of unpublished studies made in this field. Engelhardt and Engelhardt, Jr. (458), in a study concerned primarily with the design of facilities to aid the development of programs featuring wider use of school buildings by adults, stressed the informal character of the activities to be carried on. Community drama, music, arts, homemaking, recreation, crafts, expression, and a host of other activities were found to be important in the community and

space should be provided in the schools in which these elements of community life might be carried on. Emphasis was placed upon the provision of space for community analysis and development.

Fulcomer (461) studied the need for community education centers, the extent to which school buildings have been planned for community use, and projection into the future of possible community school center programs on the basis of evaluation of present experimental or innovational situations. He analyzed the provision of space for community use in the plans of secondary-school buildings erected with the aid of the Public Works Administration. He reported on a survey of programs of community rehabilitation and adult education in the eastern half of the United States. From this study Fulcomer drew common objectives of community centers and suggested changes in plant design in conformity with those goals and needs.

Conclusion

The evidence abundantly illustrates the presence of great need for effort in areas which a short time ago would not have been considered within the scope of the school. Approaching serious proportions is the plight of large numbers of youth beyond the traditional school age and not yet absorbed into work situations. For them no real solution has been found. Traditional youth agencies either do not cater to the interests of the older youth or can no longer hold them. Industry has no place for them. Some attempts have been made to bridge the gap. Extension of the school age, development of the work camp under federal auspices, and use of relief measures have been tried. Research should aim, in this area, to attempt more direct evaluation of the results and to put forth concrete suggestions as to possible courses of action. Too much of this research in the past has been purely descriptive.

The need for united community effort is also apparent. Some isolated attempts have been made in that direction. Careful study of results is necessary. Again, the work has been largely descriptive rather than evaluative. Careful study of community institutions, of existing organizations, and of possible future work is indicated. The wider use of school buildings is an avenue toward which all communities may strive. Such provision of an effective community educational program for all its inhabitants may mean working out more equitably and efficiently problems of local as well as national concern.

E. Extracurriculum Activities

WILLIAM C. REAVIS and J. LLOYD TRUMP

The most significant research studies pertaining to extracurriculum activities between 1930 and October 1, 1935, were summarized in the *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH*, April 1936 (524) and again in the

same publication, October 1937 (544). The present summary covers significant studies reported during the three-year period since the date of the last REVIEW. Although some of the studies reported do not represent research in the strictest sense of the term, all have significant implications for research in the area of extracurriculum activities.

General Treatments

Five general books dealing with extracurriculum activities have appeared during the past three years. Three of these pertained primarily to activities at the elementary-school level, one at the secondary-school level, and the other at the college level. A volume by Otto and Hamrin (536) presented an intensive survey of forty elementary schools in addition to the utilization of other research studies. Allen, Alexander, and Means (505) also prepared a general text dealing with elementary-school activities, as did McKown (529). Many research studies are reviewed and utilized in these books. McKown also revised his earlier book (528) dealing with extracurriculum activities in secondary schools. Under the editorship of Harold C. Hand, members of the Stanford University Student Leadership Seminar prepared and published a volume dealing with student activities at the college level (522).

Status of Extracurriculum Activities

Clement (513) surveyed the purposes and practices of student activities in 400 secondary schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. In three-fourths of the schools, 50 percent or more of the students were reported as participating in some student activity. In over one-half the schools, credit towards graduation for participation in extracurriculum activities is not granted. In three-fifths of the schools, activities are organized on school time. The purposes of student activities were also listed in the study. The author concludes that extracurriculum activities not only have a significant place in the program of the schools but also that these activities should be related as closely as possible to the regular curriculum. Porter (541) summarized the history of the extracurriculum movement from the earliest times down to the present.

Evaluation

Continued interest in the problem of evaluating the worth of extracurriculum activities has been manifested by the relatively large number of articles dealing with different aspects of this problem. Pierce (539), Terry (557), and Johnston (525) have contributed to research in evaluation by setting up principles of management of extracurriculum activities, thus giving a basis for evaluation. Chamberlin (512), Reavis (543), Terry (556), and Van Nice (560) have cited evidence to show the values of extracurriculum activities in social adjustment, utilization of leisure time, character building, and vocational adjustment of students. Technics

for evaluating student activities at the elementary level were listed in a bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association (519). Some local studies using these technics were also reviewed in the bulletin. Terry (558) suggested the use of rating scales and tests of social intelligence, attitudes, and emotions as well as personal data sheets in the evaluation of student activities.

As a part of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, Eells (518) studied the opinions of 17,246 secondary-school pupils with respect to extracurriculum activities. Of these students, 66.3 percent believed the total number of activities available to them in their schools was about right, 3.4 percent believed there were too many activities, 29.4 percent believed there were not enough activities, and 0.9 percent did not reply. With respect to the amount of participation, 46.1 percent of the students believed their participation was about the right amount, 40.9 percent indicated they did not participate enough, 3.5 percent said they participated too much, and 0.8 percent did not reply. Relative to the value of extracurriculum activities, 31.6 percent of the students believed activities were very valuable, 41.4 percent believed there was some value in activities, 15.5 percent indicated there was very little value, 9.5 percent no value, and 2 percent did not reply. Student activities were also listed in the study in rank order of those giving the greatest satisfaction to the students. Eells concluded that a rational, varied, and complete program of pupil activities is an integral part of a modern, fully functioning secondary school as judged by the pupils. Student attitudes toward extracurriculum activities were also studied by Sullenger (554). The reactions of 667 boys and girls in the eleventh and twelfth grades of the high schools in Omaha, Nebraska, and Council Bluffs, Iowa, obtained in a questionnaire, indicated important social values in clubs and other extracurriculum activities.

Evaluations by alumni were reported in studies by Reinhardt (545) and Smith (552). In Reinhardt's study, 453 graduates of schools in 53 Illinois counties and 8 other states criticized the overemphasis upon athletics, music, and speech activities, objecting particularly to the interscholastic contests in these activities. Adequate provisions for developing students into intelligent consumers of the fine arts were considered largely lacking. Special interest clubs were not sufficiently stressed in their opinion. The major criticism of the high schools by these graduates was the failure of the schools to aid them effectively in the development of personal traits and in the solution of personal problems. Smith studied the carry-over between participation in high-school and college activities; he found a 30.3 percent carry-over in similar fields in the case of men and 33.3 percent for women.

Studies of Specific Activities

A few representative studies of specific extracurriculum activities have been selected for reporting. Rivett (543) studied the relation of athletics to the high-school program in 380 high schools in the North Central Asso-

ciation of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Ninety percent of these schools have programs of intramural athletics with basketball reported as the most popular sport. Eighty percent of the schools have had experience with night football. Credit toward graduation for participation in interscholastic athletics is not given in 82 percent of the schools, although 70 percent grant credit for participation in regular physical education classes. Definite trends away from girls' interscholastic sports and differences of opinion with respect to state athletic tournaments were also reported in Rivett's study. Winslow (563) reported in the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York that 37 percent of the schools in that state had no gymnasium facilities. Other aspects of the program were also reported. Shannon (549) compared the scores of athletes and nonathletes among the freshman class at Indiana State Teachers College on the required English and psychological examinations, and found that athletes were slightly behind (perhaps not significantly) the nonathletes in intelligence, but were noticeably ahead of the nonathletes in achievement in English. Koch (527) reported a series of 39 general and 21 miscellaneous principles for the internal control of high-school athletics as drawn up by 38 school administrators. The two principles listed most frequently by these administrators were that rules of eligibility should be formulated and enforced by a state athletic association and that the athletic program should be an integral part of the physical education program.

Smith (551) evolved a procedure for the appraisal of clubs as a result of a study of school clubs in Honolulu over a five-year period and repeated studies elsewhere. Ratings of clubs by members, ratings of club presidents, ratings of sponsors, observation data sheets, ranking of club projects by teachers, interview schedules, and club histories were combined in a study of what makes clubs live, and in the evaluation of programs. The author listed nineteen characteristics of a live club and sixteen of a dead or dying one. Plasket (540), in conducting a careful survey of the student clubs in the Fort Wayne, Indiana, schools, compared activities students said they were interested in doing with the actual activities of the organized clubs, and found many points of contact where student interests and club activities met, as well as other areas of interest not reached by the existing club program. The study emphasized the values in general clubs which meet the diversified interests of large numbers of students. Slavson (550) reported some experiments with respect to club programs and the conduct of group activities. Vance (559) surveyed carefully the history of the Girl Reserve movement and indicated some past and possible future emphases in the program. Her study is an excellent example of an exhaustive, evaluative study of a single extracurriculum activity. Patrick (538), in studying practices in promoting scholarship in 66 schools in 25 states, found the honor society to be one of the important factors in the motivation of scholastic achievement; honor societies were found in two-thirds of the schools.

Dixon (517) studied the appraisal of homerooms by 73 principals in 20 states. He found that not only did the principals feel that the time spent in the homeroom was more valuable than an equal amount of time spent in class, but a majority of them also thought that the values and activities of the homeroom could not be achieved so well in a regular class. The principals included in the study were a select group in that they headed schools in which good homeroom programs were in operation. Willey (561) reported the opinions of 129 principals of schools enrolling more than 500 students each in 11 states of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools with respect to high-school alumni associations. Values in and objectives of these organizations were listed by these principals, the majority of whom considered these alumni associations worthwhile; 24 principals were opposed to the organization of alumni groups.

A comparatively new activity, the cooperative, has received some attention in the literature. Ogden (535) described a school cooperative among the junior high-school students at Norris, Tennessee, in which the boys and girls "have fun making money" while operating the school store, cafeteria, insurance plan, and the like, and then spend it for school purposes. Nowotny (533) described the operation of a large number of student cooperatives at the college level in different institutions in the United States.

Considerable interest has been manifest during the past three years in the problem of school contests, although no research has been reported. Typical articles presenting the controversy are those by Bedichek (507), and Page and Manning (537). Callow (511) presented subjective opinions with respect to a noncompetitive suburban league in Pennsylvania which included student council, Hi-Y, debate, and other nonathletic activities.

Participation in Relation to Other Factors

Several additional studies have been made of the relationships between participation in extracurriculum activities and other factors. Myers (531) compared 118 members of a high-school honor society with a control group in the same school. Although the average scholarship of the honor group was 83.6 as contrasted with 69.5 for the control group, the honor society group was more active than the control group in every phase of the extracurriculum program. Remmlein (547) studied 700 high-school seniors from the standpoints of intelligence, scholastic achievement, and participation in extracurriculum activities, and concluded that participation in activities is not usually an important contributing factor to the low scholastic achievement of students with high intelligence. O'Brien (534) similarly found that the pupils who engaged in more than four activities were, without exception, above the mean grade of all the pupils for the year in which his study was made, and that no definite connection appeared between failure in school subjects and participation in extracurriculum activities. Monson and Douglass (530) compared Boy Scouts and non-Scouts and found that Scouts made better school marks, although

the differences are not very significant, that Scouts were absent from school a smaller number of days, although again the differences may not be significant, that Scouts participated much more in extracurriculum activities, that there was little difference between the two groups in school citizenship, but that the Scouts had a much better record with respect to juvenile court delinquency. Hasse (523) studied the time spent by students in curriculum, extracurriculum, home, and community activities, and found that those students with the highest grades participated most in activities of all kinds and that there was little evidence of overparticipation. He emphasized the need for keeping time records and the budgeting of time by students and that these records should be a matter of study and general concern for advisers and counselors.

Nelson (532) made an extensive study of extraclass activities and student attitudes among 3,700 students in 14 denominational colleges and 4 state universities. Several attitude scales were used in relation to student participation in athletics, music, religious activities, fraternities, sororities, and nonparticipation in activities. He found fraternity men to be the least conservative and the nonparticipant and music groups the most conservative of the six groups, and that the differences were accounted for by sex. In attitudes toward Sunday observance, sorority, fraternity, and athletic groups ranked lowest in the given order while the music and religious groups ranked highest. In general attitude toward the church, the religious, music, and sorority groups ranked highest and the fraternity group the lowest. With respect to general approval of the college or university they were attending, the rank order of the groups was religious, sorority, music, fraternity, athletic, and nonparticipants. In all these rankings on attitudes, the differences between the different activity groups were greater than the differences between classes or sexes.

The socio-economic status of the parents of students who participated in extracurriculum activities was studied by Cory (514). The ranks in order of the occupations of these parents were salesmen and clerks, professional workers, skilled trades, proprietor or manager, unemployed, unskilled labor, and rural. Cory concluded that more activities should be scheduled during the school day in order to reach the children of those groups which probably needed most the benefits of activities and which were not receiving these to a comparable degree at present. Cressman (516) found that boys of low socio-economic status tended to choose personal-action hobbies while those of higher status preferred the more intellectual-type activities.

Leadership

Several studies of leadership have been reported during the past three years. Jones (526) published a book on the education of youth for leadership in which he reviewed much of the research relative to leadership and indicated ways in which leadership might be utilized. Courtenay (515) studied the persistence of leadership among girls, using the control-group

and case-study technics, and found that the qualities that made the members of the leader group outstanding figures in the high-school world continued to make them prominent on the college campus and active in the stimulation and direction of community affairs. While recognizing the need for further studies along this line, she raised the question as to whether the schools were doing as much as possible in discovering and utilizing the potentialities of the leaders. Remmlein (546) studied 783 students and found that 75 percent of them had at one time or another held some school office. The author pointed out in the report that officeholding in itself does not furnish an index of leadership, but that if the holding of many and varied offices is used as the criterion, significant differences in intelligence, scholarship, and socio-economic status exist between leaders and nonleaders, thus concluding that the true test of leadership consists in the holding of many and varied offices. Reals (542), in a study of leadership in the graduating classes of eight high schools in Missouri, Oklahoma, and Illinois, the smallest of which enrolled more than one thousand students, held such factors as curriculum chosen, age, sex, scholarship, and intelligence constant, and found these differences between leaders and nonleaders: (a) leaders had better school attendance, better health records, better general appearance, more broadening experiences, and participated more in extra-mural activities; (b) leaders' parents were better educated and had more intense interests although they did not differ markedly in general intelligence from the nonleaders' parents; (c) as far as housing was concerned, the home rating and general atmosphere was better for the leaders although there were no significant differences in income and nationality; (d) there was a predominance of "only" children in the leader group; (e) leaders were more companionable with and critical of parents and were more influenced by prominent and successful relatives. An excellent bibliography on leadership is included in the report. Wilson (562) reported, as a part of the Regents' Inquiry in New York State, that 43 percent of the students in the seventh grade and 39 percent of those in the twelfth grade of 3,389 students held no school offices. Of this twelfth grade group, an additional 18.6 percent held very minor offices, and 15.4 percent did not reply on the questionnaire. A study of attitudes revealed that pupils who held at least two offices were more liberal in their social attitudes than the nonleaders. A close relationship between enthusiasm for school government and for the fundamental tenets of American democracy was also revealed in the study. The author presented an interesting discussion of what he termed the sociological functioning of the schools in the light of the Regents' Inquiry.

Training of Sponsors

The importance of providing training in institutions for the education of teachers for sponsoring extracurriculum activities was emphasized by Briggs (508) in a study which included 161 secondary schools in 45 states. He found that 76 percent of the teachers were involved in the extracurricu-

lum program, that the teachers who ranked in the highest third in teaching success were all from this group, and that principals believed that prospective teachers should have opportunities to participate in activities and should have courses in sponsoring activities. Detailed percents are reported relative to wishes of principals for training of teachers in different specific activities. In another study, Briggs (509) reported a specific plan of activities for a teachers college, based on a study of the existing programs in 100 teachers colleges. In this study of the status of the programs in 100 teachers colleges, Briggs (510) found that none of these institutions provided in their curriculums any opportunities for training prospective teachers in guiding and directing extracurriculum activities, but that in 51 percent of the schools opportunities were provided for training through participation in extracurriculum programs in the teacher-training institutions themselves.

Finance

Many writers have proposed methods of financing activities although little objective evidence is given relative to this problem. Becker (506) reported satisfactory experiences with a \$2.50 annual activities fee and indicated some effects of the system. Fowlkes (520) assembled samples of excerpts from letters to business firms soliciting financial support for extracurriculum activities, and concluded that the "racket" should be stopped. Space does not permit other references to practices described in the literature.

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Terry (555) has continued to list annually a selected, annotated bibliography of articles and books dealing with extracurriculum activities.

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